The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 14, 1892.

The Week.

Gov. PATTISON of Pennsylvania has done well to call out the entire division of the national guard of that State to restore order at Homestead. There has been some disposition to criticise him for not having taken such a step sooner, but fair-minded people will generally feel disposed to the conclusion that deliberate action was quite as wise a policy. The strikers have now had every opportunity they could ask to put their side of the case before the public and to make their disposition clear. The stand which they have taken is fully understood, and their contention is universally recognized as untenable and intolerable. Everybody who believes in the reign of law sees that there is only one thing to be done, and that is to end the anarchy of the present situation at Homestead, to restore the works to the owners of the property, and to protect them in their right to operate them. If Gov. Pattison had rushed some troops to the scene of the trouble the moment he heard of the collision on July 6, there would have been more or less questioning as to the rights and wrongs of the question at issue and as to the necessity or wisdom of his action. Now the public sentiment of the entire nation will unquestioningly sustain his course, and the strikers will have no moral support in making any opposition to the troops.

The principal reason for fearing that the Stewart Silver Bill might pass the House was, that it might go through in the sudden access of hope and frenzy caused by its unexpected success in the Senate. Then, too, there was for a time a feeling on the part of Republican members of the House that they must do nothing to make the financial record of the Republican Senate worse than that of the Democratic House, and that, therefore, they had no special interest in voting against the bill. But the two days' filibustering of the anti-free-coinage Democrats gave opportunity for a little cool reflection on the folly of the course of the men who were willing to wreck their party for the sake of an individual advantage, and there is every sign now that reason is resuming her sway and that the bill has no chance of passing. Even if the bill be brought to a final vote, which now seems improbable, the honest-money Democrats count upon a majority of twenty-five against it. On the whole, the Democrats appear to be successfully fighting off this attack of midsummer madness.

The perplexity of the free-silver men in the House over the repeal of the Sherman Act of 1890 is due partly to political and partly to economical considerations. They see that as it is, in the opinion of good lawyers, at least doubtful if the Stewart Bill does not deprive the notes issued under the act of 1890 of their legal-tender quality, they have made it easy for President Harrison, who is astute both as a lawyer and as a politician, to veto the bill as being an act of repudiation, without committing himself in the least on the free-coinage question. The attempt of Mr. Harrison's Republican enemies to "put him in a hole," would therefore be foiled, while the sincere silver-men would be no nearer their end than before. As to the economic argument, the anxiety of the advocates of free coinage that the Government should not deprive the notes issued under the act of 1890 of their legal-tender character is not due to any tenderness for the national credit, but to a fear that this would result in a contraction of the currency, the very thing which they are making all the trouble about, and which they are constantly denouncing as a crime. Really it makes little difference whether these notes retain their legal-tender character or not. If they are absolutely annulled, the currency is contracted suddenly to the extent of $60,000,000, or whatever the amount of these notes may now be. If, which is the most reasonable supposition, the repeal of the act of 1890 makes the notes no longer legal tender, but leaves them the obligations of the Government, redeemable in coin on demand, they are good enough money for anybody, and will circulate as freely as national-bank notes. But, and this is the real difficulty of the silver-men, if these notes are redeemed they cannot be reissued; so that reduction of the volume of our currency is made easy, if not inevitable. There would be no shadow of authority for reissuing one of these notes that had found its way back into the Treasury.

The chief result up to date of President Harrison's "personally conducted" campaign has been a cheapening of the Chairmanship of the National Committee such as has never been seen before. The way it has been hawked about is ingeniously calculated to make any self-respecting man refuse to touch it, and it is no wonder that Senators Aldrich and McMillan are reported to have done so. One consequence of these successive declinations appears to have been to cause the President to show considerable deference to that mammon of unrighteousness which he was so virtuously turning his back upon. A faithful Republican organ described ephemeral Chairman Campbell as coming on Wednesday week from a conference with Mr. Harrison, met at the White House door by W. W. Dudley (who, having got as far as the door, may soon hope to be invited to dinner), joined by Dick Quay, and driven to the house of the latter's father. Thence he betook himself to the President's inner sanctum again, to report the advice of the greatest politicians of the age, and shortly emerged with the announcement that he was going to consult with "certain persons in New York." We think the Hon. Thomas C. Platt will discern here a veiled allusion to himself. What the general effect of all this manœuvring will be upon the better class of Republicans may be inferred from the following remarks of the New Bedford *Mercury:*

> "The spectacle of the President of the United States running a political campaign for his own reëlection is not an altogether pleasing sight. He is, of course, following the example of Governors and Senators and Representatives, not to speak of hundreds of the small-fry officials, of both parties. And Democratic criticism of him in this regard is both insincere and inconsistent. Still, we think many of Mr. Harrison's best friends would be better pleased if he would let the Machine alone."

Those persons who sincerely think that President Harrison has given the country "a safe, clean administration" owe it to themselves to read the report of the Pension Office Investigating Committee. This report does not go back to the days of Corporal Tanner, and is therefore incomplete, but it is sufficient to make every one who reads it blush for his country. The comments of Judge Wheeler, the author of the report, are not very dignified, we regret to say, but the facts speak for themselves. A clerk who was dismissed by Commissioner Raum, but reinstated by Secretary Noble, testified that when he wished to see the son of the Commissioner, he found him during office hours on three successive days at the pool-rooms of a notorious gambling-place, accompanied regularly by a special examiner in the Pension Office, and sometimes by two other examiners. This young Raum was proved to have accepted a bribe for getting a man a place in the Pension Office, the applicant being personated by another person in the examination before the civil-service examiners. Young Raum was also proved to have pocketed money sent to the "conscience fund." Under the advice of counsel he declined to reply to these charges. Three old soldiers, however, who had made charges against this Raum, he having tried to levy blackmail upon one of them, were forced out of the Department upon manufactured evidence. Commissioner Raum himself charged one of these men with delaying a pension so that "an old soldier now lies in a pauper's grave" by reason of this wilful delay. The report of the investigating committee on this matter is almost too shocking for belief. They find that the old soldier was dead before the case was put in the hands of the maligned examiner, and that the

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Commissioner knew it, so that he maliciously bore false witness against his subordinate.

We cannot here go into full details of the Committee's findings against Raum. He has, they allege, employed deserters from the army as clerks; he has at least tolerated scandalous immoralities between certain chiefs of division and their female subordinates; he has dismissed employees for reading newspapers that criticised the administration of his office; he has plotted to injure the reputation of a Congressman who was active in the investigation; he has supported his employees in their refusal to give information to the investigating committee; he has refused to explain how it was that a pension attorney endorsed his note for a large amount, which note he did not pay, although he advanced many thousands of cases in which this attorney was interested; he has, in fine, as the Committee charge, "prostituted his office for the purposes of private gain, prostituted his office for political purposes." Secretary Noble's conduct has been such as to make it probable that Commissioner Raum has been kept in office by the command of President Harrison. This policy of maintaining bad men in office was Gen. Grant's political ruin, but he did nothing worse than what President Harrison is now doing. Gen. Grant, moreover, was a simple-hearted soldier. President Harrison is an astute politician and also an elder in the Presbyterian Church.

The *Tribune* gives prominence to a declaration made by the editor of a Kansas newspaper, hitherto Democratic, that he will not vote for Cleveland, but will vote for Harrison. His argument is entirely logical, but we think that a little reflection would have led the *Tribune* to avoid publishing it. The editor's reasons for changing sides are, first, that Mr. Cleveland is bigger than his party, from which we may infer that he regards Mr. Harrison as exhibiting different proportions. In the second place, Mr. Cleveland is admired by men like Mr. George William Curtis, the inference from which is that Mr. Harrison is not admired by such men. In the third place, Mr. Cleveland is a free-trader, while the Kansas editor is a protectionist, as to which we have only to say that though Mr. Cleveland cannot, if he would, give the country free trade, Mr. Harrison is the true candidate of those who want more tariff taxation. In the fourth place, Mr. Cleveland is a gold-bug, while this editor believes in free coinage, indicating that he hopes for better treatment for silver at the hands of Mr. Harrison than at those of Mr. Cleveland. In the fifth place, Mr. Cleveland believes in reforming the civil service, the editor holding to the doctrine that the spoils belong to the victors, and therefore preferring Mr. Harrison. In the sixth place, Mr. Cleveland vetoed the Pension Bill which Mr. Harrison signed, and which will cost the country thousands of millions of dollars before we are through with it. Finally, the Irish dynamite element detests Mr. Cleveland, and so do the adherents of Tammany Hall, both these elements preferring Harrison.

It is doubtful if a stronger array of arguments in favor of Mr. Cleveland's election has been presented by any of his supporters than this which the *Tribune* lays before its readers as matter for encouragement to Republicans. They are invited to exult in their candidate because he is a submissive party man, because the most cultivated element in the community does not admire him, because he may sign some silver bill satisfactory to the free-coinage faction, because he is no civil-service reformer, and because he will attract the votes of the O'Donovan Rossas and of the adherents of David B. Hill. This is one of the most extraordinary combinations of attractions that have ever been offered to the *Tribune's* constituency, and, were it not for the saving feature of Mr. Harrison's undoubted protectionism, we should incline to the opinion that many worthy people, upon perusal of the Kansas editor's encomium, would decide to cast their votes for Mr. Cleveland.

The unique religious convention which held its sessions in this city last week was very much in evidence by force of numbers, if nothing else. There was something comic in the persistent incredulity with which hotel proprietors and railroad managers received the requests made of them to provide accommodations for an army of thirty thousand delegates. They had apparently measured the affair by the standard of the dwindling "May anniversaries" and other religious gatherings of the sort, and almost too late woke up to the fact that the enthusiastic and irrepressible young men and women of the Christian Endeavor Society meant what they said when they declared their intention of descending upon this city in midsummer 30,000 strong. The result has been that railroad trains have been crowded and stalled and hotels and boarding-houses taxed in a wholly unprecedented way. Moreover, the youthful vigor and high spirits of the delegates, and the hearty and unquestioning faith which they displayed in the power of their organization to conquer all obstacles, united to make them an altogether new species of attendants on a religious convention. A hardened politician is reported to have said, as he saw delegation after delegation of blooming maidens file down the street: "I tell you that if the Christian Endeavor Society continues to send such delightful specimens of young American womanhood into New York, they will own this town."

Everybody must sympathize with the young ardor and uncalculating devotion thus banded together for worthy purposes, and also be glad of all the good the Society has undoubtedly accomplished. Yet we presume that it will scarcely bring on the millennium prematurely, or will, in the long run, take a place in the religious history of our times as anything more than one of the long list of organizations supplementary to church work and life. We think, too, that those thoughtful people within the churches who have gravely questioned some of the Society's methods, have not been without reason for their doubts. The Society has probably owed a large part of its success to the social attractions it offers to young people in the churches, who have found in it a new outlet for the youthful spirits which the popular religion of two generations ago aimed to suppress, but to which church life nowadays seems bound to give play to the full. The rise of such a society to such power as it now has, witnesses to profound modifications in the prevalent religious conceptions. Conservative church people may be pardoned for doubting whether the new impulsive type of Christian character promises as stable and reasoned a religious faith and practice as were the fruit of older methods. Moreover, it is the testimony of some who have watched the workings of the Society from the inside, that the rule requiring every member to speak or pray at its meetings results too often in a forced and formal religiosity unpleasant to contemplate, in the young above all. Such things as their "sunrise prayer-meetings" at six o'clock in the morning seem either to speak of a desire to have a frolic in connection with such a service, or to lean to the notion which attaches special merit to vigils and ascetic practices. However, we do not suppose that such defects in the organization prevented anybody from perceiving its good qualities, or from taking a kindly interest in what was, in some ways, the most remarkable religious gathering ever held in this city.

The expiration this year of copyright on four famous novels comes to illustrate afresh the ethics of international practice in respect of literary property. 'The Scarlet Letter' went out of copyright early in the present year, and two or three cheap editions promptly appeared on the American market. In England, however, the event passed without notice, as the book had long since yielded the English pirate all the booty that could be wrung from it. On the other hand, American publishers are not affected by the knowledge that copyright on 'David Copperfield,' 'Pendennis,' and 'Alton Locke' ends with this year. Each of those volumes has been so freely appropriated in this country that the cessation of the author's rights in it will not influence its future price with us.

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But in England, where might has not been right in this matter, a keen competition is looked for among publishers, several of whom are understood to be prepared to flood the market, at the earliest moment allowed by law, with cheap editions of the popular books mentioned.

It is impossible to appreciate to its full extent the calamity at St. Johns without noticing the fact that for all trading and distributing purposes that city was the colony of Newfoundland. In population alone the city comprised one-fifth of the colony's total inhabitants, and the appeals for relief estimate that the fire which swept the city on Saturday rendered homeless nearly half of its inhabitants. Such a stroke as this would be ruinous to a prosperous and growing community, but, as it happens, the colony of Newfoundland has for years been struggling with adversity. The codfish trade, the mainstay of Newfoundland's industry, has been falling off, and fishermen must nowadays sail a long distance out on the Banks, or up to the coast of Labrador, in order to get the fish that have deserted the near-by waters. The colony's debt has been rapidly increasing, and the railroad, in whose construction the debt was incurred, has thus far failed altogether to bring about the promised development of the interior. In 1886 Mr. Harvey, the geological expert of the colony, prepared at the Ministry's request an ingenious pamphlet setting forth the colony's great resources in coal, timber, and farming lands. The hopes aroused by its publication have been completely disappointed. The coal and forests and arable soil are all there, and in some future stage of the continent's history may be of immense value, but there is clearly no profit in working them now. Crown lands within easy distance of the city were offered to anybody who would clear them, at thirty cents an acre, but in the face of this offer emigration from the colony has grown steadily larger. The worst effects of the great fire are likely to come from the permanent giving up of their local business by the merchants of St. Johns.

The borough and such of the county elections as have been thus far held in Great Britain seem to indicate that Gladstone cannot secure a large and trustworthy majority in the new Parliament, and that the best he can now hope for is a narrow margin in his favor. Moreover, this small majority, if he finally secures it, will be composed of heterogeneous elements, and cannot be depended upon for effective support. It is perfectly obvious that home rule has lost much of its former hold on the public mind, and it is exceedingly doubtful whether Gladstone will be able to carry through any home-rule measure. The Irish cause has lost ground steadily ever since the first unsavory disclosures regarding Parnell were made, and the succession of bitter and bloody quarrels among his original followers ever since his downfall has disgusted many who at first were inclined to favor home rule. Even among those who still believe that home rule is wise, necessary, and inevitable, the old enthusiasm in its favor has steadily grown cool, until their equanimity will not be greatly disturbed if it should prove that it must be again postponed. While the analogy is, of course, not complete, the feeling in many minds regarding this issue has come to resemble much that which characterizes many Northern people in this country regarding negro suffrage in the South—a mood in which they frankly concede that theoretically the blacks ought to rule where they have a majority, but practically they are not disposed to complain if this right is denied them so long as they seem so unfit as now to exercise it. It must be said, however, that Parnellism as a brute force has nearly reached the vanishing point, only five members of Parliament remaining, and two of these being due to Tory help.

Among the most striking results of the recent municipal elections in France was the success of the Socialists in several important cities. They are put in complete power at Marseilles, Roubaix, Toulon, Narbonne, and Toulouse. What they think of their victory may be gathered from the terms of one of their posters, reproduced in a French paper:

> "It means that Labor is at last conscious of its power and rights, and is decided to enforce them, crying out to its exploiters: 'Your reign is ended. It is I, who produce all, who should administer all; first the Commune, afterwards the State.'"

In keeping with this is the declaration of the Socialist Mayor-elect of Roubaix, who said to a reporter: "We are going to put in force, as far as possible, the programme of the Workingman's Congress at Lyons, which all the candidates on the workingman's ticket signed and which secured them their election." Asked if he thought the entire programme capable of realization, he replied that he did, and that he was convinced that it would be in force "in its entirety" before the end of his term of office, and that "to the great satisfaction of our fellow-citizens." This programme, it will be remembered, calls, among many other things, for one free meal a day for children in the public schools, and a semi-annual distribution to them of shoes and clothing; an eight hours' day, with a minimum of wages to be fixed by the City Council; free medical treatment, and drugs at "reduced prices"; free legal advice from judges in all "litigation interesting workingmen"; free lodging and food for "travellers and laborers without a fixed residence in search of work." We should say that the enforcement of a programme containing such features would bring about the greatest "satisfaction" on the part of all the Mayor's fellow-citizens who never pay any taxes.

Some of the difficulties in the practical application of "Imperial Socialism" in Germany are considered by Mr. J. G. Brooks in the *Economic Journal* for June. Under the new system of State insurance, laborers who are sick are entitled to sick-pay, and this provision is apparently having a deleterious influence upon the health of the community. Where there is a motive for being sick it is very easy to imagine a slight feeling of discomfort to be a symptom of serious illness, and furthermore the very act of attending to imagined symptoms of disease tends to make them real. Accordingly, a great amount of "simulating" is reported as taking place among the German laborers, and all sorts of remedies for the evil are proposed. Some authorities recommend that doctors who are found to be soft-hearted should not be allowed to certify as to sickness, but there are obvious objections to such odious comparisons as this. Another proposal is to reduce the amount of sick-pay, but this would be to punish the really sick for the sins of the malingerers; and, besides, the testimony of the doctors who report upon this practice of simulation is that an extremely minute pension, provided it can be depended on, is a sufficient inducement to make some men shirk labor. Some of the physicians report a startling amount of this feigned illness among workmen, varying from 10 to 25 per cent. of the cases examined.

Mr. Brooks quotes many expressions of opinion from the physicians and officers engaged in administering the law that indicate its fundamental weakness. It might almost be laid down as a principle of human nature that no one will support himself if he finds that others will do it for him. What is more remarkable than this increase of feigned sickness is that of accidents. The doctrine of "contributory negligence" not being applied under the new law, the number of accidents, in spite of the introduction of safeguards for dangerous machinery, tends to increase. The general impression derived from Mr. Brooks's extended study of the situation is that while it may be practicable for trade unions, the members of which are directly interested in guarding against fraudulent claims for illness, to check those who are disposed to cheat, this task cannot be performed by the general Government. This lesson is offered to the English by Mr. Brooks in view of the State pensioning schemes that are in so much favor there; but it seems probable that nothing will satisfy those who advocate these measures except their own experience. If that of other nations were regarded, we might suggest an inquiry into the operation of our pension law, under which most of our old soldiers have discovered that it is impossible to earn their own living, and now seem to believe that the country owes them support whether they are able to earn it or not.

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THE MERITS OF THE HOMESTEAD TROUBLE.

HARDLY any one who recollects the principal struggles of recent years between workmen and their employers can have failed to be struck with the extent to which the Homestead laborers have obtained the sympathy of the classes socially above them. At the time of the difficulty between the Knights of Labor and the officers of the New York Central Railroad two years ago no such sympathy was felt. When the Reading Railroad and the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad had their struggles with their men, the sentiment of the well-to-do was on the side of the corporations. The same may be said of the coal-heavers' strike at Hoboken, of the recent pavers' strike, and of the lockout of the housesmiths. The issues in the present strife are not different, to the superficial view, from those of these previous controversies, but it is apparent that in this case the employers receive at the most a rather grudging recognition of their legal rights, while the strong support of an earnest public opinion is denied them.

What is the cause of this different attitude of the public? So far as the employers are concerned we do not see that anything is said against their treatment of their men. The village of Homestead is described as made up largely of houses owned by their workmen, their mills are fitted with all the most improved contrivances for manufacturing steel with the minimum of human exertion, they have recognized the great union of their men, the Amalgamated Association, and they have for a long time accepted a scale of wages satisfactory to this union. These wages, too, are apparently very high. The table given in the *American Manufacturer* shows wages ranging from two dollars up to more than fourteen dollars for twelve hours' work. In some of the Pittsburgh bar-mills, it may be said in corroboration of these figures, the proprietors report the average wages of rollers as over fifteen dollars a day. These wages have been increased in recent years by improvements in machinery that make labor more effective; and though they may increase indefinitely with the price of the product, they do not fall when it falls below a certain point. The reduction of this minimum was justified by the steady decline in the price of steel; it affected in any event not more than one-tenth of the men at the Homestead works, and even after this reduction the wages earned will generally, owing to the increased output, be greater than when the scale was signed. The only other point involved was a change in the date when the scale should expire, the employers, for business reasons, desiring the beginning of the calendar year, the men preferring the 30th of June, because they regard it as a more favorable time for a strike should they decide upon one. But, accepting the contention of the men, there was certainly nothing outrageous in the claim of the masters.

On the other hand, the workmen present no argument in justification of their action, of any validity either at law or in morals. They practically assert that the mills are their property, and not the property of those whose money built them. They profess to be protecting this property, but by preventing the owners from using it they destroy its value. It is not the material substance that gives its value to property, but the use that is made of it, and so far as making use of the property at Homestead is concerned, the owners of it would be as well off with a grant of land in the moon. The motive of this action on the part of the men is to make it impossible for any man to work in these mills unless they give him permission. This work they have monopolized through their Union, and they mean to maintain their monopoly. In acting upon this motive they fired upon the Pinkerton men—for it seems to be clear that the first shots came from the shore—and thereby took life without justification. They were where they had no legal right to be; they fired without the excuse which the law recognizes, and the best that they can say for themselves is that they were acting in defence of a claim to deprive rich men of their property and poor men of their right to labor. The Pinkerton men, on the other hand, were lawfully landing upon ground which they were employed by the owners to guard, and they fired only in self-defence. That they can honestly plead that they were in fear of their lives is amply shown by their subsequent fate, which rivals in horror that of the captives taken by our aborigines in their wars. Upon the whole, it must be said that the conduct of these Homestead workmen is utterly unjustifiable legally, and atrocious morally; all that can be said for them being that they have not been guilty of the crowning folly of destroying the works which have furnished them support.

How comes it, then, that these men have secured so large a measure of public sympathy? We believe it to be because the country is at last awakening to the infamous abuses which go on under the name of "protection." With a misguided patriotism, our people have consented to a fiscal system supposed to enable struggling industries to get a foothold in this country, and they now see that their mistaken generosity has resulted in putting the Government into the hands of a ring of enormously wealthy and wholly unscrupulous men. Protection is very well as a theory; but every one knows that what it means in the concrete is that a number of manufacturers agree upon such a tax as they think will compel their fellow-citizens to stop buying foreign goods and buy of them, which agreement is enacted by Congress. The people are induced to tolerate this sort of legislation by the claim of the manufacturers that it is intended for the benefit of their workmen, and this claim, in common estimation, establishes a partnership between these parties. The implied terms of this partnership are that the profits derived by the manufacturers from tariff legislation shall be shared with their men; and when manufacturers fall back upon their legal rights and say that they will discharge whom they please, and employ whom they please, and pay what wages they please, the feeling is irrepressible that they are stating their true position, and that their plea for American laborers was a mean and contemptible pretence, designed simply to enable them to enrich themselves by utilizing the credulous patriotism of the American people.

Upon this point Congressman O'Neill of St. Louis makes some observations that deserve the attention of protectionists. He says:

> "Some of the newspapers fling at Senator Palmer because he said that the men had a right to employment. Now, haven't they, if this theory of protection amounts to anything? The high-tariff men say their tariff is to protect American laborers. Why haven't the laborers a right to demand the benefits of protection if it is kept up for them? If the country passes laws for the avowed purpose of protecting labor, why can't it see that the men reap part of the results?"

The sympathy felt for the Homestead laborers, therefore, is due to a feeling that their employers pleaded a partnership with them when they persuaded the people to tax themselves for the benefit of their business, and repudiated it when it came to the division of the spoils. But there is more in the matter than this. It shows the miserable results of the fundamental principle of protection, that the Government is to be used to benefit one class of citizens at the expense of another. The power in the hands of men of great wealth is already so great as to be regarded with jealousy, and when this power is employed, as for more than thirty years it has been employed by the ironmasters of Pennsylvania, to regulate the fiscal policy of the United States in their own interest, it becomes detestable.

SENATOR PALMER ON THE RIGHTS OF LABOR.

THE Senate took up the Homestead riot as a subject of discussion on Thursday, on a motion of Senator Peffer to appoint a select committee of three to investigate Pinkerton and the Pinkerton men "since their first appearance in the United States to the present time." In the course of the debate Senator Palmer of Illinois took very advanced positions on the labor question, which must lead him into the ranks of the Bellamy nationalists if he is not there already. This is rather surprising to people in the East, who had come to regard Mr. Palmer as rather conservative in his ways of thinking, he having voted against the disorganizing schemes of the silver-men in the Senate, and having taken the decisive step at Chicago which made the nomination of Cleveland certain. It becomes necessary to examine Mr. Palmer's arguments in detail, and see whether they are supported by the facts of the workaday world, and

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where they would lead us if they were carried into execution.

The first thing that strikes us as open to objection, or wholly condemnable, is the Senator's habit of sheering away from his own conclusions as soon as he comes in sight of them, and taking refuge in glittering generalities of speech. Thus, after contending powerfully for the laborer's right to be hired and to remain in the service of the employer he has chosen—this being, as he acknowledges, a new class of rights springing out of the changed relations of men and things—he does not tell us where the laborers' pay, or the manufacturers' profit, if any, is to come from, or how either the one or the other is to be ascertained and adjusted. Upon these points he takes refuge in the phrases "reasonable compensation" and "reasonable profits," as though there were standards on file somewhere by which these could be determined, and also resources out of which they could be paid. Senator Palmer knows, as a lawyer, that all disputes about reasonableness which cannot be settled privately by the parties must go before a jury. Therefore his idea is that the new order of things that has been ushered in lately, requires a jury trial to determine the reasonableness of both wages and profits.

The Bellamy Nationalist party, anticipating the law's delay in such cases, knowing that the laborers might starve and the manufacturers be ruined while waiting for the verdict, have run ahead and lodged in the central government the whole power to regulate these matters. Seeing, furthermore, that no power can compel an employer to pay what he has not got, or for that matter what he says he has not, they provide that the Government shall so regulate all employment at the fountain-head that there will be just enough of everything produced to satisfy all reasonable wants and nothing over, and so that all shall be willing to work the requisite number of hours per day at the particular trades requisite to satisfy all wants. The Bellamy programme is at least comprehensible. That it is unworkable on any such planet as that on which our lot is cast is the opinion of all the recognized thinkers who have taken the trouble to look into it, but it is at least possible to see what it means and where it brings us. This is more than can be said for Senator Palmer's plan. The Socratic dialogue, if applied to him, would drive him straight into the Bellamy camp or into that of the Socialists of the school of Marx. When once there, he would be asked to show where the State is to find means to pay the workman's reasonable compensation, or the wonderful men to work the complicated machine by which all persons are to have their reasonable wants satisfied.

These would not be the only questions confronting the honorable Senator. Some people would want to know at what precise time, or about what time, the new order of things was ushered in by virtue of which the Homestead rioters had a right to take possession of the property after they had struck or been locked out. Upon this point Mr. Palmer was more emphatic than lucid, saying:

> "I maintain, therefore, that at the time of the assault upon these people at Homestead they were where they had a right to be; they were upon ground they had a right to defend. Do you ask me if these men may by force take possession of the property of another? No. They were conducting themselves in the line of their rights, as I understand them. Business was suspended, and these men were simply awaiting a settlement of the disputed questions between them and their employers.
>
> "Mark me! I maintain the right of owners of property to operate it at their will. I maintain the right of the operative to assist in its operation. I maintain the right of both parties to reasonable compensation for their services. I maintain the right of these laborers to continuous employment, dependent not up on the will alone of the employer, but dependent on the good conduct of the employees."

If there is such a thing as the right to seize other people's property and to commit an assault, it must be of very recent birth. Indeed, we gather from the telegraphic report of Mr. Palmer's speech that these rights are still inchoate, but are on the point of being established. Whether they are to be fixed by act of Congress or of the several State Legislatures, or by judicial decision, or by common consent, is still uncertain. It is to be hoped that when the time comes for defining them, they will not be restricted to operatives in iron mills, but will be made general, so that, for instance, if the hired men in a harvest field or on a cotton plantation are not satisfied with their wages, or if their employer discharges them for any reason, they will have the right to seize the farm and commit an assault on the farmer's family. Such rights could not be restricted to any class without producing a hateful aristocracy. The waiters in a dining-room ought to have the right to seize the hotel, subject, of course, to the owner's right to keep it and operate it in his own way. These two rights, being somewhat conflicting in any imaginable state of the law, the result would probably be a smashing of the crockery and a bill for damages. Who ought to pay the bill would be a difficult question to answer, but not more difficult than a hundred others that Senator Palmer raises.

OUR VARIEGATED CURRENCY.

THE letter from the *Evening Post's* London financial correspondent which appeared on Saturday, describing the apprehension felt in that city about the effects of our silver laws, showed a certain confusion in regard to our silver paper money, which is shared to a large extent in this country. The letter said: "We should like to know whether these 'legal tenders' (of the New York reserve banks) are silver certificates or solely greenbacks." The answer is, that what are technically "silver certificates" are not a legal tender. But it is probable that the London idea of a "silver certificate" includes the "Treasury notes" issued under the Silver Law of 1890. The so-called Bland Bill of 1878 provided that the holder of silver dollars issued under that act (the dollars being legal tender) may deposit them with the United States Treasurer or any Assistant Treasurer and receive in exchange "certificates," which shall be receivable "for customs, taxes, and all public dues." These are the technical "silver certificates," and there are outstanding of them $326,680,803.

The law of 1890 provides that the silver purchased by the Treasury under that law shall be paid for with "silver bullion Treasury notes." These notes are made a full legal tender, and it is provided that, "when held by any national banking association, they may be counted as a part of its lawful reserve." There are outstanding of these notes $98,051,657. It is these "treasury notes," probably, which the London financiers have in mind in the connection referred to. It may be added that the law provides that these notes shall be redeemed on presentation "in gold or silver coin." This is supplemented by the statement that it is "the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio, or such ratio as may be provided by law." Then comes the further statement that after July 1, 1891, only so much of the silver purchased under the act shall be coined "as may be necessary to provide for the redemption of the Treasury notes." Moreover, the Treasury Department issues "United States certificates of deposit for legal-tender notes," and these certificates may be, and in fact are, issued on the deposit of greenbacks or of silver Treasury notes under the act of 1890, or of mixed parcels of both. There are about $16,000,000 of these certificates in the bank reserves of the whole country.

A glance at our variegated currency, now and then, is a useful lesson, both in economic science and in the evolution of public opinion. It consists of the following things:

(1.) Gold coin. This is the foundation of the whole. Everything else rests upon it, including the standard silver dollar. The gold dollar is the "unit of value," and the only one known to the law. The meaning of the phrase "unit of value," since the silver dollar was reintroduced into our coinage in 1878, seems to be restricted to custom-house valuations, the rating of foreign coins, and other technical matters. Inasmuch as gold is the only thing in our variegated currency that stands on its own bottom, it results that gold bullion answers the same purpose as gold coin for monetary uses.

(2.) Standard silver dollars. There are about $60,000,000 of these in actual circulation, answering the same purpose as small notes. The remainder of the silver dollars, about $347,000,000, are held in the Government storehouses, most of them being represented by—

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(3.) Silver certificates. According to the latest report there were, as stated above, $326,680,803 of these in circulation, and there can be no more of them. These pieces of paper are not legal tender.

(4.) Greenbacks. These are the legal-tender notes issued during the war, amounting now to $346,681,016, of which about $100,000,000 are held by the national banks as a part of their reserves. No more can be issued.

(5.) Legal-tender notes under the act of 1890. These are issued in payment for silver bullion bought by the Government under said act at the rate of 4,500,000 ounces per month. With silver selling at 87 cents per ounce, the monthly output of notes would be about $3,900,000. This is a continuing operation. The whole amount at present is, as we have said, $98,051,657.

(6.) National-bank notes. These amount to $167,000,000, or thereabouts. They are not legal tender between individuals, but are such at all national banks, each bank being required to receive them at par for any indebtedness due to itself.

(7.) Gold certificates and legal-tender certificates. Not in general circulation. They are issued by the Treasury on the deposit of gold, or of either kind of legal-tender notes, for the convenience of banks.

(8.) Subsidiary coins. These it is not necessary to describe. They include everything less than a dollar that circulates as money. They are not legal tender beyond five dollars. The Treasury redeems them in legal-tender money whenever requested to do so.

The act of 1890, as already said, declares that it is the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other. This amounts to a direction to the Secretary of the Treasury to redeem everything that comes to him for redemption in gold, except the notes of solvent national banks. When a bank becomes insolvent, he must redeem its notes also.

Inasmuch as the whole structure rests upon gold, the question may be asked, Why do we have all these variations of currency? Why not have what other nations have, viz., gold and bank notes, or gold, Government notes and bank notes? The answer is that we have had a majority of members of Congress during the past fourteen years who have imagined that taking gold from the people by taxation to buy silver bullion with, and then coining this bullion into dollars and selling them back to the people at 100 cents each in gold, would cause the people to have more money in their pockets. This is the cause of our variegated currency. The experiment has been tried so long, and with such disappointing results in the way of filling people's pockets, that some observers think the end of it is not far distant.

THE BURDENS OF THE PRESIDENT.

It is disappointing, in view of Secretary Tracy's commendable action concerning appointments in the Brooklyn Navy-yard, to find him making a long speech upon the duties of the President without referring to the relief that might be had through a reformed civil service. Perhaps Secretary Tracy is too honest and too loyal to express views that might seem to reflect upon the practices of his chief, but he certainly failed to recognize the irresistible suggestion of his facts. He computes the number of postmasters to be appointed by the President at over 3,000, and the total number of offices to be filled by him at 4,556. The Presidential post-offices fall vacant at the rate of 800 a year—Secretary Tracy does not estimate how many of these are due to partisan removals—and for every office there are as a rule many applicants. The next President will have to fill on an average more than four offices on every business day during his term, which certainly ought to leave him time to do nothing else.

But the President, after considering the merits of a dozen or twenty applicants for office daily, must during the year pass upon some 550 applications in behalf of citizens who desire to have not more to do with the Government, but less—the petitioners for pardon. He had also to inform himself during the Fiftieth Congress concerning the 1,824 acts and resolutions which that body submitted for his approval. His duties in connection with the Cabinet are not insignificant, as may easily be imagined if we think of President Harrison repressing the warlike ardor of Secretary Tracy, gently correcting the errors of taste of Postmaster-General Wanamaker, or diplomatically guiding the exuberant impetuosity of Mr. Blaine. He must, in theory at least, feel a certain responsibility for committing the expenditure of a hundred and twenty or thirty millions a year to the hands of Corporal Tanner and Gen. Green B. Raum. He must, if required, shake hands with every American citizen who visits Washington; he must give and attend dinners and receptions, must occasionally write a letter, go to church, inquire after the health of his family, and if possible secure a little time for sleep.

With slight exception, Secretary Tracy's suggestions of relief do not seem to be of a nature to lead to any improvement in the Government. It might be practicable to allow applications for pardon to be disposed of according to the recommendation of the Attorney-General, but we do not see how this practice can be constitutional. It is probable that as a matter of fact these applications are disposed of in some such way, but it would require a constitutional amendment to give the practice legislative approval. Much the same may be said of the practice of accepting the recommendations of heads of departments and others specially informed as to appointments to office and as to the merits of statutes. This is done now because it is impossible for the public business to be done in any other way, but it cannot be formally recognized by legislation without conflicting with the letter of the Constitution.

As to the proposal that the appointment of officers to the Presidential post-offices should be made not by the President but by a subordinate, the remedy is worse than the disease. So long as the President can be held directly responsible, some kind of decency in the matter of removals and appointments may be exacted by public opinion. But if the President is able to say to an indignant citizen, "I have nothing to do with these matters; you must go and see Mr. Clarkson about them," reform will be impossible. Responsibility would be effectively divided, and where it is divided it does not exist. To adopt this measure would be to increase enormously the power of the party organization, which is the very power that intelligent reformers all over the country are doing their best to limit.

The true line that reform should take is indicated by the circumstances of the case. It is physically impossible that President Harrison should have direct personal acquaintance with the citizens of Texas and Oregon and Maine. If he has to appoint a postmaster in one of the towns of these States, he is necessarily obliged to consult with some of their citizens in order to learn the qualifications of applicants. The most convenient way to do is to act on the recommendation of Representatives or Senators from the different States. They at least know something of the applicants, while the President knows nothing. The practice is convenient, and, from a party point of view, desirable; but the objections to it are notorious. Yet unless some other practicable means of enabling the President to judge of the merits of applicants is devised, the present system will continue.

The remedy is not far to seek. First, the four years' law should be repealed, so that vacancies should not exist until there is a real need for a change. Then, when new postmasters are required, let them be nominated by the people directly interested. The Post-office would be quite as well served by men chosen by the people who come in daily contact with them as by men selected for political considerations, and it admits of no question that in towns of moderate size intelligence is sufficiently advanced to prevent the general recommendation of unsuitable postmasters. Other functionaries have little to do with the people, but the postmaster meets them daily face to face. They are personally interested in the selection of such functionaries, and they are entitled to have something to say about it. It is frequently the case that appointments are determined by the petition of persons using a particular office, and all that is necessary is to regulate this practice by law. The Department should be left free to refuse an appointment for

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specified reasons, but in default of these the appointment should go to such men as are desired in particular localities. The requirement of a proper bond and the retention of the right of dismissal for cause would protect the interest of the Government, and the right of petition for the removal as well as the appointment of postmasters would protect the people.

THREE YEARS OF REPUBLICAN FINANCIERING.

THE 30th of June brought to a close the third year of control of the national finances by the Republican party since its last accession to power. A review of the financial methods and results which have marked this period of three years is naturally suggested at this time.

The great question which troubled Secretaries Manning and Fairchild and, for a time, Windom, was, what to do with the enormous Treasury surplus; the thing that puzzles Secretary Foster is, how to stave off a little longer a Treasury deficit. On June 30, 1889, the surplus available cash in the Treasury was $127,000,000; on June 30, 1892, Mr. Foster reports his net cash balance at $26,692,377, of which $14,224,714 is in unavailable subsidiary coin. The surplus is gone, sure enough. Fairchild's $127,000,000, together with $247,000,000 of surplus added in three years and the $54,000,000 of the bank-note redemption fund turned over to the Treasury by the law of July 14, 1890, has come down to $12,000,000; and how even that narrow balance on the right side has been artificially obtained we shall presently show. The Republicans have found the surplus so much "easier to handle than a deficit," in Col. Fred Grant's historic phrase, that it has altogether disappeared under their expert manipulation, and they will soon have a chance to try their skill on a deficit.

In his annual report for 1887, Mr. Fairchild passed in review the various expedients for preventing taxation from exceeding the expenditures of the Government. He mentioned: purchase of the interest-bearing debt, larger expenditures by Government, reduction of taxes. To the first he gave a qualified approval, as the main instrument then within the power of the Secretary of the Treasury, pointing out, however, that the apparent saving of interest was really a losing transaction to the people, "the measure of loss being the difference between the worth of the use of the money to them and the interest saved on the bonds cancelled." He proceeded:

> "I cannot believe that unselfish statesmanship will adopt the second expedient, viz., the enlargement of Government expenses simply to expend money raised by taxation, when the public weal does not otherwise call for the expenditure. Every dollar taken by taxation from the man who has it employed in a business which the natural wants of the community call for, and carried into the Treasury, even if at once paid out again to satisfy obligations created by law in excess of the healthy needs of the Government, is a dollar used to misemploy labor and to impoverish the people."

His natural conclusion was that reduction of the revenue from taxation "is the only fit remedy for the evils which threaten the country."

What methods have the Republicans followed in their too successful reduction of the Treasury surplus? First, the purchase of national bonds. They chose that means in spite of the fact that Secretary Windom, in his first annual report—that for 1889—declared that "it is manifestly wrong to take money from the people for the cancellation of bonds, to the saving of only about 2 per cent. of interest, when it is worth to them perhaps three times as much in their business. It is rather through a reduction of customs receipts and internal taxes that an unnecessary accumulation of money in the Treasury should be avoided." Between March 4, 1889, and October 31, Mr. Windom purchased bonds to the amount of more than $66,000,000. During the fiscal year 1889-90 he bought about $100,000,000 more. In the year 1890-91, $134,000,000 additional was paid out for the same purpose. In this way we account for the disappearance of about two-thirds of the surplus of over $400,000,000, of which the Republicans have had the disposal. The rest has gone in that "enlargement of Government expenses" which Secretary Fairchild could not believe in 1887 would be adopted by "unselfish statesmanship" as an expedient for getting rid of the surplus. The total ordinary expenditures of 1888-'89 were $281,996,615; of 1891-'92, $361,348,669. Moreover, in the former year all appropriations were paid; in the latter, according to Senator Allison, $87,000,000 of the appropriations remain unpaid. In 1888-'89, civil and miscellaneous expenses were $73,000,000; three years later, $99,000,000. Then the pension bill was $87,000,000; last year it was $134,000,000, and next it will be $160,000,000. These two items show the main and unjustifiable increase; in the others—the outlay on the army and navy and the Indian service—the advance has been no greater, perhaps, than the growth of the country called for.

Secretary Fairchild's last estimate of income and expenditures and consequent surplus proved so accurate as to extort a compliment from his Republican successor in the Treasury Department. Last December Secretary Foster estimated the surplus at the end of the fiscal year at $24,000,000. He was only $28,000,000 out of the way, as his surplus turned out to be a deficit of over $4,000,000. A slight mistake like that will not disconcert a man of Mr. Foster's make-up, who is rather disposed to dwell upon the immense success of his efforts to stave off the payment of $87,000,000 more, for which the laws have made the Treasury liable. The bills for that amount will finally be presented and must be paid; but he comforts himself by reflecting that perhaps the election will be over by that time, and then it will make no difference.

It is only fair to say that the force of the argument which might be made against the Republican party for its extravagance and incompetence in financial matters has been impaired, for Democratic uses, by the record of the present House. Its monstrous River and Harbor Bill is a piece of indefensible extravagance. Yet, when all is said, apart from this item the appropriations by this Congress have been as economical as possible under existing laws. The pension laws call for an appropriation of $150,000,000, and so long as no one can be found with nerve and patriotism enough to bring about a repeal of the wasteful and demoralizing provisions of those laws, there is nothing to do but to vote the millions demanded. Some other pieces of extravagant Republican legislation were deliberately made a "continuing appropriation," for the express purpose of fastening the expenses they entail upon a Democratic House. For the last year the total amount of such permanent appropriations was $122,486,808. Add that compulsory sum to a compulsory pension bill of $150,000,000, and there is not much margin left for economy.

THE BRITISH ELECTIONS.

THE London constituencies, Birmingham, Bradford, Bristol, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Hull, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Nottingham, Salford, Sheffield, and Wolverhampton, being all the places which, under the existing distribution of seats, return more than two members each, will be represented in the new Parliament by sixty-seven Conservative or Liberal Unionists, as against forty-five Home Rule Liberals. The figures show a great change of sentiment since the time, not so many years ago, when the large cities were, with few exceptions, Liberal strongholds, constant to the party even when the rest of the country decided against it. After the Tories, under the leadership of Mr. Disraeli, in 1868, by extending the borough franchise, took their "leap in the dark," the cities above named, being then entitled to forty-eight members, returned no less than thirty-nine Liberals and only nine Conservatives. Of course the secession of the Liberal-Unionists on the Irish question has been in part responsible for the change in sentiment that results in the return of what is practically a Tory majority from places which, less than a quarter of a century ago, sent to the House more than four Liberals for every Conservative.

In some places the opposition to home rule has operated with most disastrous results to the Liberal cause. In Birmingham it has wrought a literal revolution. Prior to 1886, the Radical metropolis of the Midlands had never returned a Conservative to Parliament. So overwhelming was their majority that its Liberals were able, in spite of the device to secure minority representation contained in the Reform Act of 1868, to elect at every one of the three general

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elections held while that act was in force all three members. Even in 1885 the Liberals polled 33,000 votes to 23,000 cast for the Conservatives—that is to say, as late as seven years ago it was relatively about as strongly Liberal as New York city is Democratic. Yet every representative in the new House, as in the one just dissolved, will be a supporter of the Salisbury Government, and in the five divisions in which alone the Liberals ventured to make a contest, the Unionists polled 29,000 votes, as against but 13,000 cast for the Gladstonian candidates.

Still, strong as the Liberal-Unionists are in particular localities, their strength is by no means generally diffused, and it is usually great only in constituencies in which the united Liberal party formerly had a heavy majority. In many Conservative neighborhoods the Liberals are stronger than they were before the home-rule controversy arose. Warwickshire furnishes a curious illustration of this fact. There are, inclusive of the seven of Birmingham, ten borough seats in this county. In 1885 they returned 9 Liberals and 1 Conservative. In 1892 they returned 9 Unionists and 1 Liberal, and the lone Liberal comes from the same constituency which in 1885 returned the solitary Tory. The Liberals, overwhelmed everywhere else, have "gone to Coventry" and captured the borough from the Tories, who in 1885, when themselves as unpopular in the neighboring constituencies as the Liberals now are, found there a refuge.

Exclusive of Birmingham, Glasgow, and Edinburgh, the Liberals in 1892 carry in the large cities three more seats than they did in 1885. Outside of the three places named, prior to 1885, other causes than Liberal differences as to Ireland must have been at work to reduce the Liberal strength. One of the first evidences of a coming change of opinion in the great centres of population was shown when in 1874 the City of London first became definitely Conservative—a faith in which it has since become more and more confirmed. It was principally due to this loss of the City that, even in 1880, Mr. Gladstone did not get quite as many seats in the larger places as he had done twelve years before when his majority in the country as a whole was smaller. Still, in 1880 he carried 37 such seats, as against but 11 held by Tories. The Redistribution Act of 1885 more than doubled the representatives of these places, increasing the number from 48 to 112. Had political opinion in them remained unchanged, this increase of their representatives would have added greatly to the Liberal strength. In fact, however, it had precisely the opposite effect, and instead of a Liberal majority among their members of Parliament of more than three to one, as in 1880, the Conservatives actually returned 59 members as against but 53 Liberals. Some seats were lost by the transfer, under Mr. Parnell's orders, of the Irish vote from the Liberals to the Tories; but, allowing for such losses, it is obvious that between 1880 and 1885 there must have been a great change in the political opinions of very many of the voters in these cities.

Whatever was the cause—whether it was disapproval of Mr. Gladstone's management of foreign affairs, the increasing popularity of the Tory Democracy, or what not—the effect was indisputable, and was not confined to the larger places. The British boroughs in 1880 gave a Liberal majority of 149, and in 1885 cut it down to 28. Had not the enfranchisement of the agricultural laborers brought about an equally striking counter revolution in the counties in which the Conservative majority of 35 in 1880 was turned into a Liberal majority of 75 in 1885, Mr. Gladstone would have been defeated in the latter year almost as signally as he defeated the Earl of Beaconsfield in the former. This change in the political complexion of the boroughs seems likely to be a permanent one. In the new Parliament, although the Unionist majority of 88 in them in 1886 will be reduced to about 18, there will still be, as compared with 1885, a loss of 23 seats counting 46 on a division, and of no less than 80 seats as compared with 1880.

The elections give new proof that, in Anglo-Saxon countries at least, the size and enthusiasm of public meetings and the extent to which the streets are thronged with cheering thousands furnish no safe indications of the real drift of opinion among the great mass of the quiet voters. Never was Mr. Gladstone more enthusiastically received in Edinburgh than during the campaign just closing, and yet the result of the polling shows that his party in that city is not only far weaker than it was in 1885, before the home-rule controversy had divided it, but that, relatively at least, it has lost ground even since the general election of 1886. The Scotch capital has always been a Liberal stronghold. It has, we believe, never returned a Conservative to Parliament. In 1885, out of 27,271 votes polled, but 4,231 ballots were cast for Conservative candidates, although doubtless there were a number of Conservatives who, in the districts in which they had no party nominee, voted for the Liberal candidates least objectionable to them, and thereby somewhat exaggerated the apparent Liberal strength. In 1886, when Mr. Gladstone appealed to the country on the home-rule issue, the opposition vote more than doubled, rising to 9,763, while that of his supporters fell to 13,625, or only a little more than one-half of what it was but eight months before. In the last six years, to all appearances, the Liberals were regaining much of their lost ground. The single Unionist elected from Edinburgh to the Parliament of 1886 became a convert to home rule, resigned, and recontested his division in the Liberal interest, and turned a Unionist majority of 690 into a home-rule one of 46. Now, however, when the final test comes, it appears that, in the six years, the Gladstonians have increased their vote only 1,723, as against an opposition gain of 2,806. West Edinburgh has again returned a Unionist, while the Liberal majority in South Edinburgh, which in 1886 was 1,587, has been cut down to 220.

THE "AGAMEMNON" AT BRADFIELD COLLEGE.

Oxford, June 25, 1892.

The valley of the Thames is never more full of summer than on these pleasant days of June, when the larks are rising from its hills, and its hedgerows are filled with the staccato notes of the yellow-hammer. Suppose that a company of idlers are floating down the Isis from Oxford, and let one of them, grown tired of his narrow boat, make for the river-bank at Pangbourne. There—if his landing had happened last Tuesday afternoon—he might have found me hurrying out of a dusty train which had left Oxford an hour before, and his more leisurely journey by water would have been admirably in keeping with the rest of my expedition to Bradfield. From Pangbourne we drove through pleasant avenues of limes, past little clusters of thatched cottages, and fields white with ox-eyed daisies or golden with buttercups. Before the fourth mile ended, we noticed on our right hand a picturesquely overgrown chalk-pit, and stopped a few minutes later at a wicket gate leading down into a second chalk-pit. But the place was so hidden and embowered by trees that nothing but a wooded slope appeared.

At this roadside gate strange things were happening, for there seemed only one way of gaining admission to this English chalk-pit. You had to produce a square blue card upon which Greek words were written. As you descended the narrow downward path, darkened by overarching foliage, a cushion somehow found its way into your hands, and then came a surprise. A sudden and sharp turn to the right revealed a crowd of people seated in a Greek theatre. Above them was the sky of England framed in by the branches of trees, but you and they seemed to be in another world. What could this countryside gathering be if not a festival-meeting held to honor Dionysus in some rural township of Old Attica? We sat in circles around the altar of Dionysus, there was no roof, there were no footlights, no stage paraphernalia to make us into workaday play-goers. The pleasant-mannered boys in mortar-board caps and black gowns who had received and guided all comers, bore white wands which seemed to have a magical power to break down the barriers between past and present.

Soon a signal was given by youthful trumpeters from the ledge above our heads; then appeared a priest at the door of the house of *Atreus* and *Agamemnon* which faced us. When he had commanded silence and disappeared, *Clytemnestra's* watchman began the tale of his year-long vigils on the palace roof. At last he espied the beacon from Troy, and his shouts stirred up a tumult within the house. In wild excitement youthful figures clothed in the graceful Greek dress darted from its doors across the stage, and were followed by women and older men. As these retired, the music of a harp and a flute was heard, while the elders of Argos marched in. *Clytemnestra*, is-

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suing from the palace, found them gathered in the orchestra and confirmed the great news that Troy had fallen. The simplicity of the accompaniment to which they chanted their songs all in unison; their uncomplicated dances, which often recalled the rounds of May-day festivals—everything the chorus did, served to mediate between the drama in progress and the assembly of holiday-makers, which was never allowed to fall away from the performance into the attitude of an "audience." Like pious Athenians of old, we had each a part of our own in the function at hand. Thus a strange hold was given to the beauty and majesty of the story as it ran its course, and little if anything in the manner of the performance stood between us and that mysterious power which in this, as in all great Greek tragedies, conquers the spirit of man until he is possessed by an element larger than himself. The frank and youthful enthusiasm with which the boy actors of Bradfield threw themselves into their parts was rarely ill-judged, and served to bring out into bold relief the great outlines of the drama. *Agamemnon* arrived in his chariot with *Cassandra* cowering behind him. *Clytemnestra* appeared and beguiled him, though loath, to tread upon the purple strewn by her maidens. The Chorus spoke often of forebodings which were shared by us all when, with a word for *Cassandra*, the king of men went in to his doom. *Cassandra's* agony of prayer and her prophetic cries alarmed not the Chorus only, but all who were listening. When she also disappeared, there was a universal shudder, so that we wondered to see how carelessly a "shiftless little swallow" fluttered down from an overhanging bough and perched for a moment on the peak of the house of *Atreus*. Then were heard groans and shrieks from within, and, just as the elders of the Chorus were about to dash into the palace, *Clytemnestra* appeared, flung open the doors, and stood exulting in her crime and pointing to her slain.

The total effect of this representation of the "Agamemnon" by Dr. Gray, Warden of Bradfield College, and his pupils, was more nearly that of an ancient Greek ceremonial performance than anything which has yet been seen in our day. This is true in spite of details to which objection must be made. The rather theatrical and over-precious prettiness of the Apollo of the Belvedere looked uncommonly foolish when *Cassandra* turned toward it in anguish and prayer, and the spectacle of slaves, harnessed under the lash to draw in *Agamemnon's* chariot, suggested the habits of Persian rule rather than any Athenian conception of the heroic ways of the king of men. A lingering attachment to unreal traditions confined actors and supernumeraries to the stage, which was therefore very often unsuitably crowded when the orchestra stood comparatively empty. It was strange to see a chariot and a band of returning veterans emerging from a narrow side door and blocking one-half of the raised stage when the outside approach to the palace through the orchestra was open and unused. The stage at Bradfield had been refashioned for this play, and the old-fashioned notion (based upon a misunderstanding of Vitruvius) that the stage was something more than a portion of the orchestra, raised more or less to suit the setting of the drama in hand, had apparently been abandoned. Having gone so far, and not too far, like those who abolish the stage altogether, Dr. Gray might well have taken a hint from Dr. Dörpfeld, and could have increased the effectiveness of his stage-setting by making his actors use the orchestra as freely as his chorus used the stage.

But, after all exceptions have been taken in detail, the wonderful impression made as a whole by the "Agamemnon" at Bradfield remains. Only in such an open-air theatre can we feel to any full extent the deep religious undertone which characterizes every great Greek play. In such surroundings only will the powers of nature anciently personified in Dionysus weave themselves into the tragedian's story. It was therefore a most happy inspiration which led Dr. Gray to transform a corner of the demesne of Bradfield College into a Greek theatre. What he began in 1890 for the performance of the "Antigone" then given, he has now brought far toward perfection. His guests at this year's three performances have to thank him for the unique opportunity of witnessing a Greek dramatic service under just the circumstances and in just the posture of mind and body most favorable to the understanding of its Greek quality. Furthermore, they owe to one much younger than he, who is a scholar-elect of Corpus at Oxford, a remarkable performance of the rôle of *Clytemnestra*. It was no fault either of the Warden or of his pupils that we were rudely reminded of our latitude just when *Aegisthus* entered at the close. A drizzling rain descended, and the spell was broken by the very elements that had been weaving it around us. Let us hope they will be more propitious today for the third and last performance at Bradfield.

LOUIS DYER.

A GERMAN JACOBIN.

PARIS, June 23, 1892.

'A PRUSSIAN IN FRANCE IN 1792: Strasbourg, Lyons, Paris'—such is the title given by M. Laquiante to his translation, just published, of the letters of J. F. Reichardt. The name was not altogether unfamiliar to me. Reichardt was in 1792 the principal writer in the *Musical Journal* of Berlin. His letters were published in two volumes in Berlin, at the end of 1792, and in 1793. And what volumes! The title-page of the first is adorned with a red liberty cap and two tricolor cockades; the author has adopted a pseudonym and calls himself "Frei." These ornaments disappear, however, in the second volume, in the year 1793, the year *par excellence* of the guillotine. The book has become rare. Reichardt was accused of Jacobinism, and lost in 1794 his place of Capellmeister to the King of Prussia. His letters on France are those of a disciple of Rousseau, of a friend of France, of a friend of the French Revolution. He was brought up as a musician, and was appointed Capellmeister at Berlin at the early age of twenty-three; as such he was Director of the Italian Opera. In 1785 he visited Paris, with introductions from Gluck; he returned to Prussia, made several other journeys to France, and became a member of the French Institute.

The correspondence now published begins on January 6, 1792, at Frankfort on the Main. Reichardt meets several French *émigrés* and has very little sympathy with them; his heart is on the side of the Revolution. The German population of the Valley of the Rhine had no more sympathy than he for the *émigrés*. "In almost all the towns, but especially at Coblentz, the *émigrés* are obliged to pay double or treble, and always in advance; otherwise people refuse to lodge or feed them." The Prince de Condé, on leaving Speyer, said: "This German rabble knows how to behave towards its little princes; it does not know how when it has to deal with princes of the blood." In the Palatinate, the French who had no domicile could not remain more than twenty-four hours in the cities. "Among the host of Frenchmen who established themselves in Heidelberg with their families when the agitation began in France, there are many whose ancestors devastated this country." Reichardt speaks of the ruins of the castle of Heidelberg, and wonders what the French think who contemplate them. At Bruchsal, the residence of the Bishop of Speyer, the *émigrés* were not tolerated. Reichardt has no sympathy for the ecclesiastical electors or the German princes. "Our princes ought to pray that the French do not cross the frontier. The peasants of the Palatinate and of Mayence say boldly: 'As soon as the French come, we will join them.' At Bruchsal the oppression is as hard as it can ever have been in France."

In January, 1792, Reichardt is in Strasbourg, and puts a tricolor cockade on his hat. He goes immediately to the Club of the Friends of the Constitution, and makes the acquaintance of the supporters of the "good cause." Among them was Schneider, who has since become legendary in Alsace. Born in Bavaria, he made himself a monk (of the order of the Récollets) at the age of twenty. He was a good speaker, and, taking the name of Euloge, he became preacher at the Court of Stuttgart and Professor at Bonn; the Mayor, Dietrich, called him to Strasbourg, where he founded a paper, the *Argus*, and became the chief of the demagogic party, and upset Dietrich, his protector. In 1793 he was appointed public prosecutor, and acquitted himself of his functions with such ostentatious cruelty, vanity, and license that the Convention was forced to have him arrested and conducted to Paris. He had the impudence in his prison to say a word against Robespierre, during the trial of Dietrich, whom he accused with savage passion. Robespierre sent the "German priest" to the guillotine.

It is curious to see Reichardt among Dietrich, Schneider, and others, before all these events, conversing quietly with Dietrich at the "Freibürgerstube," or applauding Schneider at the Club. Dietrich was a partisan of constitutional government. He was really for thirty months the master of Strasbourg; he opposed the Jacobins; he decided the local assemblies of Alsace to vote in favor of a monarchical constitution, and this vote was the signal for persecution. He was arrested, and died on the guillotine December 29, 1793. Among the men whom Reichardt met in Strasbourg was Marshal Luckner, a veteran of the Seven Years' War. "Luckner, with his small stature, his vulgar physiognomy, seemed to me pitiful. Think that this man, in this country of equality, where all decorations except one have been suppressed, wears three foreign orders on his breast." Luckner was placed at the head of the Army of the North and gained a victory over the Austrians. This did not prevent him from being arrested and guillotined on the 4th of January, 1794. Again, among the persons of note whom Reichardt met in Strasbourg was the eldest son of Marshal de Broglie. Victor de Broglie had attached himself to constitutional ideas; he was matriculated in the Alsatian nobility, as he had married Mlle. de Rosen, who was descended from the Swedish Rosen, and had brought him a marquisate. Broglie did not go far enough in the revolutionary direction; he was opposed to the suspension of the King. He would not emigrate, however, as his father had done. He was arrested in 1794 and

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guillotined, at the age of thirty-seven, in 1794.

Alasce was less enthusiastic for the Revolution than appeared at first sight. The old nobility had always been very popular, as they lived among the people. Turckheim was elected Mayor of Strasbourg in December, 1792, by an almost unanimous vote. He was the chief of the aristocratic party. The *procureur-général-syndic* (a sort of a prefect) was Levrault, who was hardly thirty years old, and whom Reichardt describes as a very superior man. He belonged to the Constitutional party, and in 1793 he had to flee to Bâle to save his head; he became afterwards a great printer, and died in 1821, rector of the Academy of Strasbourg. M. Laquiante gives in his notes a very interesting letter of Mirabeau's to Levrault written in 1788. He announces in it the meeting of the States General: "What I prophesied has happened; if you don't want them, said I to the Government, on foot, they will come on horseback. What will they do? Many foolish things; but never mind. Nations get into shape like children; they must have their colics, their toothaches, their wailings." The civil constitution of the clergy profoundly divided the Alsatians. Less than one-tenth of the Catholics consented to take the oath of obedience to this new Constitution; the non-jurors were thrown into prison, many of them died in the hulks at Aix or on the guillotine. Dietrich and his friends looked upon the non-jurors as mere fanatics; almost all the Constitutionals were Voltairians. The theatres are always representative of public opinion. Reichardt one day delights himself at an operetta, "Les Rigueurs au Cloître." It is the history of a nun who is ill-treated in her convent because her love-letters have been found. The liberator appears in the uniform of an officer of the National Guard. He reads the decree which abolishes the monastic vows and takes the nun to her lover, a good patriot.

From Strasbourg Reichardt went to Lyons by way of Colmar, Bâle, Nantua. Some noise in the theatres, some bad patriotic plays, were the only marks of the political revolution he found in Lyons. He paid a visit to the Club of the Jacobins: "The company consisted of people of the lowest class; no debates, only denunciations and libellous calumnies. The whole thing seemed to us very disgusting." The laboring population of Lyons took no part in these proceedings.

In Paris Reichardt rushes to the Assembly, in session at the old riding-school of the Tuileries. In the evening he goes to the Club of the Jacobins. He gives us portraits of Condorcet, of Vergniaud, of Brissot, and a few others. "Vergniaud, certainly the most serious and the most vigorous of the popular orators, has an unpleasant face, but one that bears the marks of force and energy. His whole person gives the same impression, though he is neither tall nor distinguished. Vergniaud dominates all his colleagues by his knowledge, his passion, his eloquence." Reichardt, on the whole, though he was what the French call *naïf*, and was led away by his great admiration for the French Revolution, is rather impartial in his judgment of men; he discerns the charlatan in Pétion, the Mayor. "In front of the procession walked, his hat under his arm, Mayor Pétion, a personage of a fine appearance, with broad shoulders and a flat face showing as much vanity as phlegm." He gives, moreover, *in extenso*, a speech by this Pétion, which is absolutely ludicrous. Reichardt is an admirer of the *Père Duchesne*, the most popular paper of the time, which spoke the coarse language of the Halles. His letters read like newspaper articles, and, in my opinion, very poor articles; they have a sort of heavy stupidity which only at times becomes laughable, and their dulness is relieved here and there only by a little *trait de mœurs* which is interesting as showing the temper of the people.

It is clear to me that General Lafayette did not care to make the acquaintance of Reichardt, who made several attempts to see the General, but always unsuccessfully. He avenges himself by writing—

"Notwithstanding all I have read and heard of Lafayette, I cannot form a clear idea of his character. He is suspected by both parties. This is well expressed by an engraving which you see in every shop-window. Lafayette is hanged; an aristocrat drags him by one foot, a Democrat by the other. . . . He has made himself odious to the Jacobins. . . . Such conduct is not clever in a man who has, at least in appearance, the same object as the Jacobins, viz., maintenance of the Constitution, resistance to the machinations of the Court and of the *émigré* princes who wish the reëstablishment of the old régime. . . . So far he has too much liked to be spoken of and to figure in the front rank."

Reichardt sides entirely with the Jacobins, though there remains in him a certain *fond* of *bonhomie* and of good sense which comes out here and there. He blames the aristocratic men of letters who are not revolutionists —Marmontel, Suard, Barthélemy, Grimm. He puts on the red liberty-cap; he, however, describes Robespierre with some severity: his haughty demeanor, "his pale face, his sly look, render even more provoking the impertinence of his attitude." He recalls Goethe's epigram—

"Jene Menschen sind toll! So sagt ihr von heftigen Sprechern
Die wir in Frankreich so laut hören auf Strassen und Plätzen.
Auch mir scheinen sie toll; doch redet ein Toller in Freiheit
Weise Sprüche wenn, ach, Weisheit in Sklaven verstummt."

Sometimes Reichardt is well inspired; his final judgment on all he has seen is remarkable: "I am obliged to confess that the French nation is less enlightened than I thought. The qualities which give it precedence over the other nations which I know, are more due to a happy natural disposition and to the gentleness of its manners than to intellectul culture." He sees clearly that there are no real political convictions, no real devotion to the new Constitution. He deplores the lightness of mind which is a trait of the national character: "It is impossible for a young Frenchman to seize a serious idea conceived in a dry form." He perceives that "the ignorance of the lower classes is incredible, and in the higher classes it is not rare to meet men devoid of any notions of the importance and government of foreign countries." This picture, which is in the letter of April 2, 1792, deserves to be read *in extenso;* it is very exact, and, on many points, as exact in 1892 as it was in 1792.

Correspondence.

THE DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I don't quite understand your very complimentary reference to Mr. Stevenson, the Democratic nominee for the Vice-Presidency. Of course you recognize him as one of the leading officials in the Post-office Department under President Cleveland, and as a very active, handy man with the headsman's axe. In fact, the only man who has ever kept up anything like his record was Mr. Clarkson. Out in this country we recognize it as a victory for the enemies of civil-service reform, although his probable part will be a minor one during the next four years. Isn't there something wrong about your notice?

Yours truly, E. G. Cooley.

Aurora, Ill., July 1, 1892.

[Nothing wrong, because we were speaking only to Mr. Stevenson's personal character as vouched for by his political opponents; and to his mental calibre, in striking contrast with that of his rival, Gray of Indiana. If we could also have praised his views of office-holding, we would have done so; but it is fair to remember, even in his case, that the Administration which he served found the civil service filled with Republicans almost exclusively, and barred to men of other party opinions and affiliations, and that Mr. Cleveland approved of an immediate, though not precipitate, series of removals and substitutions until something like an equilibrium as between Democratic and Republican incumbents should be reached. In this we consider he made a fatal mistake of expediency, as the good of the country demanded of him not an equitable redistribution of the offices, but an instant abandonment of the spoils system—*i. e.*, so far as in him lay, the taking of all appointments out of politics. Mr. Stevenson's rectification inevitably paved the way for Mr. Clarkson's, and what has been gained?—Ed. Nation.]

ROLLING-MILL PROTECTIONISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The average voter determines, it is said, the policy of a democratic country like ours; but what he really thinks and believes can only be determined on the day after a general election. A small section of average men, however, can be studied profitably, if one takes time. I have had the curiosity to study the political opinions of a number of rolling-mill protection Republicans with a view to finding out their actual private belief on the subject of the tariff. They consist chiefly of people employed in the mill or indirectly making a living therefrom. The majority of the club which in particular I studied have a fair common-school education, but are unaccustomed to weighing arguments and debating questions logically. They are honest, thrifty, patriotic citizens, and the kind of people an innocent man would like to have on a jury where the merits of the case could be decided by the heart rather than by the head.

The following is, I believe, a correct exposition of their views on the tariff and kindred subjects.

(1.) The war is over and there is no immediate danger of a Southern invasion. (Still, the Democratic party, on general principles, may not be any too patriotic now.)

(2.) The word protection means a great deal: people protect themselves from cold and rain, and we should protect ourselves from foreign competition. (This is a general underlying idea and not to be pressed too closely.)

(3.) If the tariff is lowered, the mills will

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close and we must starve. (This is a favorite scare argument. Citing instances of previous similar declarations, subsequent reduction of tariff, followed by increased output and extension of mills, is useless. This argument works well with newly arrived Swedes, Poles, and Germans; the more [politically] ignorant the man, the greater its effect on him.)

(4.) Granting that the manufacturers get higher prices for goods under a protective tariff, it follows that, as they are thus enabled to, they will pay higher wages to their workmen. (This assumption that the manufacturer will pay more for labor simply because he has more money to his credit in the bank, is rarely stated in so many words; but a vague yet persistent notion often crops up in discussion, that the boss will "divvy up" the profits with his men; he ought to—therefore he will.)

(5.) Statistics (source and trustworthiness unexamined) show that protected American workmen receive more money than free-trade English workmen. If we have free trade, we shall come down to their level. (Comparative purchasing power of money in different countries unknown, and comparison of wages between free-trade English workmen and protected Continental workmen suppressed or misunderstood.)

(6.) The doctrine of protection is American and patriotic; the Stars and Stripes and a high tariff go together. Hurrah, boys, etc.! (Comment unnecessary.)

Generations to come will probably laugh at the above sophistries, as we now laugh at Sir Robert Filmer's thesis.

EDWARD L. MORSE.

AMERICAN DIPLOMACY IN TURKEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been called to an article in your issue of June 16 on "The Troubles of Americans in Turkey," which contains an implied censure of our State Department and of our present Minister in Constantinople. Without entering into a lengthy reply or an explanation of the causes of the present troubles (which I might do), I should like to say from personal information that the present Administration has not been less firm than its predecessors in protecting the rights of our missionaries in Turkey; and as for the efficiency of our present Minister, Hon. Solomon Hirsch, I am glad to state that he combines fine business qualities with a sound judgment, decision of character, and firmness of will, and it is no exaggeration to say that in point of ability he is far superior to any Minister that we have had in Constantinople for many years. In saying the above I feel that I am voicing the almost universal verdict of the American missionaries in Turkey.

Very respectfully,

Z. T. SWEENEY.

COLUMBUS, IND., July 1, 1892.

[We merely reported an *express* censure of the Administration, uttered by a high authority on Turkey, and took pains to disclaim for ourselves any means of judging either its conduct or that of Minister Hirsch.—ED. NATION.]

THE RUSSIAN PROFESSORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As Mr. Dole and Mr. Wiener have seemed not to have grasped my exact meaning in regard to the Russian professorship, allow me to state my position with a little more definiteness on the points which they have raised. I take them in the order in which they are printed in your issue of June 30, so far as possible.

It is probable, as Mr. Dole remarks, that a professor of Russian would not be likely to be overrun with pupils. But it is certain that what few pupils he had would go to him, primarily, for the sake of acquiring a practical working knowledge of the pronunciation and an ability to understand the spoken tongue, with a view to continuing their studies in Russia itself so soon as they should be qualified to do so. I am assuming, of course, that the supplementary study in Russia includes the merely superficial, polite acquaintance with the current literature for which university students in French, German, and other modern languages are prepared, as well as the more profound researches which one in a thousand might feel moved to make, as in the case of the other languages mentioned. It is only when a student attacks the dead languages, such as Sanskrit, Latin, and ancient Greek, that these practical considerations can be set aside, and an American professor considered as permissible. In short, with the dead languages, an American may be a very much alive, whereas, with the living languages, he is generally the deadest sort of a teacher, and is responsible for the vast amount of ridicule which the American nation reaps abroad among cultivated foreigners, who cannot comprehend the stupidity of learning any language except from a native of the country in question.

There is no necessity for the Russian professor to be an adept in the pronunciation of anything except Russian. But the other languages and varieties of the Slavic which I mentioned possess more or less literary monuments, which he should be able to read at first hand. Slight as is the difference between some of them, I could name cultivated Russians of my acquaintance (not to mention Americans) who are unable to cope with them. Some of my friends cannot read the Slavonic, which is indispensable to a professorship, though they understand the church service in it, as Italian Roman Catholics understand the Latin service, but more perfectly. Others of my acquaintance cannot read Little Russian, and this sort of inability is so widely extended that Turgeneff translated Little Russian authors into the ordinary Russian for the benefit of his countrymen. The Imperial Geographical Society found it worth their while to send an expedition into the Southwestern provinces (Little Russia, Ruthenia—they are synonymous), and make and publish an immense number of folk-songs, ballads, and legends at the expense of the Government. The same sort of material has been collected, to a greater or less extent, in the case of all the languages which I mentioned. I happen to be pretty well posted on this matter, as I read, literally, thousands of pages of it, in all the varieties of dialect and tongue, for Prof. Francis J. Child's great work on the English Ballads. Moreover, in 1887, I was invited by Mr. Justin Winsor to classify and prepare for cataloguing a vast mass of volumes, in all the various tongues, which had long been accumulating in the Harvard Library, and lay utterly useless to every one for the lack of a person who could even assign titles. I do not mention my own powers (which are somewhat unusual, I am told by Russians) of reading all these things, with any personal aims or interested motives on behalf of any one else, but simply to prove that I know what I am talking about.

What Mr. Dole says in regard to the abundant leisure which the future Russian professor will enjoy, after attending to his tiny flock, and of the use which might be made of it, is also true; but his deductions in this case are as false as in the other. A Russian professor, properly qualified by birth and years of previous study at home, would, indeed, be capable of continuing his researches on the base of his past and giving the world something valuable. But how is an American to effect this? After years of study abroad—which some aspirants would expect the University to pay for—he might make a beginning, provided he knew the languages I have mentioned to start with, for the philological part of his work. The only libraries in this country which can pretend to furnish even the rudiments for his investigations are those of Harvard and Yale. (The late Eugene Schuyler gave Cornell a considerable miscellaneous collection of Russian books; but I am not aware that Cornell has attempted to complete it, or to compete with Harvard or Yale on this ground.) When it comes to publishing, the Russian, by life-long training and custom, has so distinctly the advantage over the American that it is hardly worth while to take the latter into consideration at all. The American, thanks to having received what superficial instruction he may be lucky enough to possess of foreign tongues, from American professors, as is advocated in this case, will infallibly write in English—very likely, in bad English, as translators frequently write. The Russian would issue his learned treatises in Russian and French, or in French alone, as has long been the practice with his scientific fellow-countrymen. They would thus be accessible to the whole learned world, and, supposing that the professor should be as ignorant of idiomatic English as Mr. Dole assumes, or as the ordinary translator is, they could readily be translated into English for the benefit of victims of American professors of French, and so on.

I heartily agree with Mr. Wiener that only a philological knowledge of the cognate Slavic tongues is required—that is what I meant to be understood in the beginning. But this should be thorough, not a sham derived from defective French translations instead of from the originals. The point on which I do not agree with Mr. Wiener is that which he illustrates by citing the case of Prof. Morfill at Oxford University. Prof. Morfill, despite his learning, is a brilliant example in disproof of the very point which Mr. Dole imagines that he has triumphantly scored beyond the chance of contradiction, viz., that in regard to the greater insight of an American into the peculiar difficulties which would present themselves to an American student, but not to a Russian professor, since the American has suffered in his own person the agonies of linguistic puzzles unperceived and unelucidated by the native Russian. Prof. Morfill's Grammar, which should, in virtue of this argument, be the most perfect in existence, is the worst. It is, perhaps, absolutely perfect for a person who already knows the language thoroughly in its finest shades, and is capable of grasping a set of Liebig's extract of rules—in short, for the person who does not need it, or as a literary monument. But for the beginner it is no more comprehensible than Chinese, though the book was written for beginners.

I will also venture to call Mr. Dole's attention to the fact that, delightful as it may be to boast—half a century later—that one has studied with a native American Longfellow

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or a Lowell, Longfellows and Lowells are not very plentiful even in our rushing young country; also, that neither of them attained to the supreme fame of being thus mentioned without prefix or Christian name on account of their temporary professorships of foreign languages, but rather in despite of this, and because of their mastery over their own tongue, which less noted Americans would do well to imitate. ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

JULY 4, 1892.

FRANCES DUNLAP LOWELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While so many tributes have been paid to our great poet, essayist, and statesman, James Russell Lowell, will you give me a little space in your columns to say something of the woman who for thirty years was the great inspirer of his life? She has been strangely overlooked in the many notices that have appeared from time to time. The writer of this has at various times been an inmate of their home and knows whereof she speaks.

Frances Dunlap Lowell: beautiful in person, attractive in manner, her loving nature drew all to her who came within her influence. She charmed little children, and young men and young women became closely attached to her. She possessed rare common sense. The practical element in her supplied what was wanting in Mr. Lowell in this respect. He gave into her keeping all his income that she so well knew how to spend to the best advantage, so that their never large income told for much more than most persons would have thought possible. But this was far from being all. She had fine literary instincts, which Mr. Lowell fully recognized. He used to submit all that he wrote during the period they lived together to her criticism, and said that he valued her opinion above every other. She hesitated not to give adverse criticism whenever she disapproved of what he wrote, or thought him not at his best. That wonderful "Commemoration Ode" he read to her page by page, as it was written, as well as the last series of the "Biglow Papers." He said to more than one person, "She has a perfectly rounded character, and is superior to any woman I have ever known."

She loved this man with all the strength of her noble nature, but in no narrow way. She was broad in her views of human life, and generous almost to a fault. Of a deeply religious nature, the Divine element within her was always uppermost and ruled all the affairs of her life. She had a genius for loving. When, seven years since, she closed her eyes to this world, the greatest light of this man went out. Had she lived to the present time, James Russell Lowell might now be living, with the prospect of ten years at least of usefulness to his country and the world before him, such loving, wise care did this woman, Frances Dunlap Lowell, take of him.

SOPHIA T. TOWNSEND.

PORTLAND, ME., July 5, 1892.

Notes.

AN illustrated subscription book, 'Famous Composers and their Works,' edited by Prof. J. K. Paine, with able collaboration, is to be published in the fall.

The Presidential year involves a new edition of McPherson's indispensable 'Handbook of Politics,' which James J. Chapman will issue at Washington a month hence. Any one who remembers the electoral and legislative events of the past two years will know what interesting data this thirteenth volume of the series must contain.

Harper & Bros. announce 'Carlyle,' by Prof. John Nichol; 'On Canada's Frontier,' by Julian Ralph, illustrated by Frederic Remington; 'The Danube: From the Black Forest to the Black Sea,' by F. D. Millet, with illustrations by the author and by Alfred Parsons; and 'That Wild Wheel,' a novel by Frances Eleanor Trollope.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will begin in September a new edition of Bulwer's works in forty volumes, each provided with a frontispiece designed by E. H. Garrett.

The Arena Company, Boston, have in preparation 'The Rise of the Swiss Republic,' by William D. McCrackan; and 'Sultan to Sultan: My Adventures among the Masai and other Native Tribes of East Africa,' by Mrs. French-Sheldon.

W. H. Lowdermilk & Co., Washington, have undertaken to complete Mr. Hickcox's 'Monthly Catalogue of Government Publications,' and to issue it hereafter regularly and promptly, with Mr. Hickcox for editor. We trust that the enterprise is at last on the stable footing which Congress and the libraries of the country should already have assured it. The subscription price will be five dollars a year.

Rand, McNally & Co. have in the press a translation of Paul Berkow's 'Vae Victis,' illustrated with views of the Alhambra.

The most interesting part of 'The Naturalist in the Transvaal,' by W. L. Distant (London: R. H. Porter), is that relating to the Boer, his manner of life and opinions. In the characterization of him as a mixture of the old Israelite and the Scotch Covenanter, "a rough, God-fearing, honest, homely, uneducated Philistine," whose one book is the Bible, the author differs little from other writers. But he appreciates better than Lord Randolph Churchill, for instance, the Boer's intense love for the independence which he won by hard living and hard fighting, and sympathizes with him in his bitter resentment at the invasion of his solitudes by the eager, restless throng of money-getters attracted by the gold mines of Johannesburg. His days are numbered, however, for "with the railroad the ox-wagon will disappear, and with it the last characteristic feature of the old voortrekkers." The Kafir, who still forms the bulk of the population, is described as a fairly trustworthy laborer, whose industry is shown by the fact that he takes back every year from the farm and the town to his kraal about $3,000,000 in gold coin. The author's accounts of his various excursions to observe the bird and insect life of the Transvaal are always entertaining, the scientific description of his collection being relegated to an appendix. This fills about half the book, and is mostly the work of the leading English ornithologists and entomologists. The attractiveness of the volume is heightened by the general excellence of its illustrations, and especially of the colored plates of the more important insects collected by the author.

'France of To-day,' by M. Betham-Edwards (Lovell, Coryell & Co.), does not call for extended comment. It will be a disappointment to readers who are led to take it up by the reputation of the author. But for that reputation one would guess it to be the work of an inexperienced writer, who had no qualification for literary work, and who had read more books than she could digest. The style is slipshod and careless; there is a good deal of repetition, and a good deal of tedious and jejune commonplace, together with much irrelevant literary allusion. It contains some useful and interesting facts concerning the ordinary routine life of French peasants, the provision made by the Third Republic for popular education, more particularly for that of girls, and a few other topics which, if skilfully handled, could well furnish forth an interesting essay of perhaps fifty pages, but, when spread and padded out into a book of 335 pages, produce a most wearisome effect. Two or three specimens of the style may amuse our readers: "On the Committee of Management—a noteworthy fact—figures the name of a Protestant pastor" (p. 125). "Above the chair of office, a fact to be specially noted, hangs a crucifix" (p. 250). "The siege of Belfort gave French history as grand a page as that of La Rochelle; and, advocated by Thiers, 'the old man eloquent,' rescued the key of the eastern frontier from the fate of Strasburg and Metz" (p. 237).

Books like Mr. Charles F. King's "Picturesque Geographical Readers" (Boston: Lee & Shepard) proceed from a commendable motive, and 'The Land We Live In,' by this author, will interest most school-children. But they are but poorly adapted for reading aloud, especially for rhetorical exercises, though Mr. King has collected at the end some poetic fragments about the States. In parts the descriptions are so condensed as to run the risk of being unintelligible, even with the aid of the very good illustrations. A teacher might use the book to advantage occasionally, with amplifications.

Mélusine for May-June reproduces a curious impression from an old woodcut inferred by M. Gaidoz to be of the time of the Fronde. The legend is an Alexandrine—

"Les quatre vérités du siècle d'à présent";

and the personification consists of four figures representing a priest, a soldier, a man of law, and a peasant—a man of the people, a Populo (or Populot) as he would be called nowadays, says M. Gaidoz—"the Fourth Estate," as it is the present fashion for the orators of the working class in France to designate their constituents, though the name has long been appropriated by the Press. M. Gaidoz sees in this picture "tout un programme," the implication being that on this proletary, with fowls, game, and eggs in his basket and panier, the three orders are dependent for common nourishment.

In the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for June 15, M. Ch. V. Langlois has the happy thought to print *in extenso* the metrical "Somnium cujusdam clerici" found in MS. in the library of the city of Reims. Littré knew of it, and cited it in his 'Histoire Littéraire de la France,' but did not give it its true value. It is, in fact, a memorial of a battle between the English and Picard "nations" in the University of Paris, in 1279, arising out of some question of precedence, which ended in the expulsion of the Picards. The author of the "Somnium" was one of the expelled, and he bewails his fate in 380 rhymed verses showing a strong affection for Paris.

"Cum mallem Parisius sine mora mori
Quam hic esse spacio vivens longiori.
O dulcis Parisius, decor omnis ville,
Civitates superans omnes modis mille. . . .
Urbs nulla se audeat tibi comparare"

—he says. The luckless scholar is soundly rated in his dream by Prudence, but cheered at the end by Hope. What is noticeable is that he does not *name* his English enemies, con-

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tenting himself with the allusive "gens aculeo caude nimis dure," it being a tradition that Englishmen had tails, and a customary mode of aggravating them by referring to the fact. "Anglici erubescunt caudati vocari," says Étienne de Bourbon.

A very effective beginning is made of an annual 'Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature,' published by Ginn & Co., under the direction of the Modern Language Departments of Harvard University The first volume, consisting of 128 pages, is slenderer than its successors are expected to be, but not many are likely to contain a more weighty article than Prof. George Lyman Kittredge's formidable critique of Prof. Lounsbury's advocacy for Chaucer of the authorship of the English 'Romaunt of the Rose.' It occupies just one-half the volume, without a particle of verbiage. Prof. Kittredge contributes, besides, a kindred paper on Henry Scogan, controverting Brandl's ascription to him of the 'Court of Love.' Prof. E. S. Sheldon discusses at length the origin of the English names of the letters, and furnishes also some etymological notes; Mr. John M. Manly traces the meaning and etymology of "lok Sounday"; and Prof. Kuno Francke, with the aid of plates, makes a very plausible argument to show that Mantegna's "Triumph of Cæsar," which hung in one of Goethe's drawing-rooms for daily contemplation, was the source of several images in the Mummenschanz procession of Plutus-Faust in the Second Part of "Faust."

The interesting exercises at the opening of the new Library building at Cornell University last October have been printed in a fine quarto pamphlet, illustrated in a way to give a good idea of the beauty and aptness of the structure, which seems ideally well placed (on a hillside) for indefinite enlargement of its stack room. Portraits of Mr. Henry W. Sage, who generously bore the cost of erection; of ex-President White, who bestowed his remarkable historical collection upon the Library; and of Mrs. Jennie McGraw-Fiske, after Miss Whitney's medallion, are likewise inserted.

A three-quarters portrait of the late James R. Osgood leads the series of plates in the July *Sun and Shade* (N. Y. Photo-Gravure Co.). The rest present the customary assortment of views from nature and copies of paintings, and are of good average quality.

—The New England Society of Orange, N. J., has fitly undertaken the publication of the late Dr. Stephen Wickes's posthumous 'History of the Oranges.' Newark, of which these pleasant suburbs of New York once formed part and may again, was a New England settlement, and was the last experiment in theocratic government on this continent. It was founded *anno mirabili* 1666, with a covenant which confined the right of suffrage and of office-holding to members of Congregational churches. In the course of fifteen years this "Fundamental Agreement" was already laid on the shelf; by the end of half a century the Congregational polity had been superseded by the Presbyterian. Apart from its share in these transformations, the history of Orange has few salient or picturesque features, and the interest of Dr. Wickes's cautious researches is almost wholly local. Of all the town's primitive industries, that of hatting has been the most persistent and profitable, while the manufacture of shoes has gone under, partly as a consequence of the civil war, for coarse cowhide shoes for slaves were a specialty, and one saw them carted to New York in "a wagon with sideboards, and heaped up five or more feet high, like a load of hay." Copper-mining is also extinct, though the deposits were not exhausted. The ore had to be shipped abroad for smelting, and the jealousy of the protectionists of the mother country was likewise shown in the case of iron, an act of 1750 forbidding the erecting "of any mill or other engine for slitting or rolling iron, or any plating forge to work with a tilt hammer, or any furnace for making steel," in any of the colonies. The advance in the hat-making trade, too, was deemed "to the prejudices of Great Britain." The history of Orange in the period under review (1666-1806) is bound up with that of its First Church (the Mountain Society, as it was originally styled). The parish sloop for the support of the Gospel was an odd investment, growing out of dock privileges on the Passaic River. She plied between Newark and New York. The subscription paper for the purchase of her, in 1784, here given in facsimile, contains the first mention of the town's name extant in any local record; and this name was adopted for the sloop. The pastors were men of mark and spirit, and samples of their sermons curiously reflect the spiritual habit of the time. In 1784, Pastor Chapman helped the neighboring church at Caldwell into existence, and its first two ministers (1788-1833, 1834-1840) were Stephen Grover and Richard F. Cleveland, the namesake and father of the ex-President. Orange was represented in Congress for thirty years in succession, in House and Senate, by Dr. John Condit. Dr. Wickes's chapters were not fully wrought out before he died, but they have been edited with intelligence, and the book is solidly and handsomely made and profusely illustrated.

—The ninth volume of the new edition of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' (J. B. Lippincott Co.) contains some first-rate specimens of the kind of writing demanded by works of this character. Such are—opinions apart—the articles on Rousseau, by the Rev. H. G. Graham; on Russia, by Prince Kropotkine; on George Sand, by George Saintsbury; on Shakspere and Shelley, by Prof. Dowden. Mr. Lang is the brief biographer of Sir Walter Scott, with a lavish hand. The Salvation Army is described by Bramwell Booth, with a lack of realism that was to be expected. The venerable Isaac Pitman cannot be charged with egotism in mentioning himself and his system in the article on Shorthand, but Mr. Theodore Watts, who treats of the Sonnet, certainly goes out of his way to advertise his four exemplary "sonnets on the sonnet," "one only of which, under the name of 'The Sonnet's Voice,' originally printed in the *Athenæum*, was widely circulated in sonnet anthologies." Mr. Alfred Russel Wallace defines and defends Spiritualism, with little astuteness, and, in the case of this country, with absurd praise of the intellectual performances of "seers" whose moral status, too, in the community has suffered a woful decline, though Mr. Wallace appears to be ignorant of it. The appalling fact of the worthlessness, literary and practical, of the great mass of spirit communications, is not so much as hinted at. Nor does Mr. Wallace, in attempting to deduce from the "long and eloquent addresses" (signifying nothing) of trance mediums "our most complete knowledge of the teaching and philosophy of modern spiritualism," remark on the absence, after more than forty years of assumed intercourse between the two spheres, of any consistent, definite, detailed account of the next life, such as, if the spirits were to put the questions, would be given to them of life on the earth—such as we obtain from travellers concerning foreign countries, or such as we should exact of the explorer of Symmes's Hole concerning its subterranean inhabitants. These astonishing defects in the revelation, though they do not settle the question of the genuineness of the mysterious phenomena which constitute the alphabet of spiritualism, do cast a chill on the pursuit of the subject by existing methods.

—The first four out of the sixteen parts of the new annual supplement to 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' come to us from Westermann & Co., and furnish fresh proofs of the value of this publication. The leading geographical articles record the progress of exploration in Africa (filling five pages), Asia, Australia; and under the Dark Continent we have a table of the extraordinary development of European appropriation of territory in the past fifteen years. Under Australia is sketched the basis of the proposed Confederation. Under China it is manifested how much prompter the Government was to avail itself of the telegraphic bond of national union than of railroads, of which the strategic value may yet appear to the Peking dynasty. The article on Bosnia tells of the fostering, by the Austrian Museum of Art and Industry, of a revival of the Oriental hand industry of damaskeening, with happy effects on the trade of the province, and without injury to the native taste; a like movement in the manufacture of woollen hangings and tapestry has sprung up. Noticeable are the statistics of the Prussian income tax and railroad system, together with the censuses of Berlin and Germany. The Chadourne incident is related under Bulgaria. There is a long article on the history of Cambridge (Eng.) University. Under Banks there is a survey of the development of the chief banks of Europe, with such comparisons as the United States afford. The several scientific and learned congresses of the year are reported, as usual; a long chapter is devoted to the legislation in several countries looking to the insurance of workingmen. Electricity is another prominent rubric. The obituaries include two real Bonapartes and two Brummagem—Boulanger and Balmaceda; on the other hand, the new men taken cognizance of are J. M. Barrie, T. Hall Caine, and, tardily, Aubrey De Vere; with Mr. Elkins, our present Secretary of War. It affords some idea of the scope of this work to cite the article on the discovery of Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens,' and the news item, which will strike the eye of readers of Tolstoi's 'War and Peace,' that the One Hundred and Fourth Ustiug Regiment in Russia has been named after General Bragation. The maps and illustrations have the customary originality and worth: a map of illegitimacy in France, Germany, Austria, Hungary, and Italy; one of the lighthouses on the German coast; and views of mountain railroads, with diagrams of mechanism and a profile of the highest in the world—that on Mt. Washington being overlooked.

—In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for June 15, M. Alfred Binet prints an interesting article on Jacques Inaudi, the latest arithmetical prodigy, whose case has recently been investigated and reported on by a committee of the French Academy. Jacques Inaudi is in his twenty-fifth year, and comes of a poor family; his earliest years were spent in minding sheep. It was at the age of six that he first showed an interest in figures. Unlike most celebrated calculators, he did not employ pebbles or his fingers, or other visible symbols, to perform his sums: his operations were mental, and

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done by means of words—that is, by the names of the numbers from one to one hundred, which his brother recited to him. Neither he nor his brother could read at that time, and, as far as he recollects, his brother did not teach him the multiplication-table. With the numbers he knew he proceeded to calculate, and when he had exhausted them, he asked to be taught the numbers exceeding one hundred. Thanks to continued practice and to his prodigious aptitude, his progress was rapid. At the age of seven, he says, he could multiply five figures in his head. He soon left his native land to go on a tour with his brother, who played a barrel-organ while Jacques picked up the pennies and gave occasional specimens of his proficiency in figures. Presently he was taken in hand by a showman, and made his first appearance in Paris in 1880, being presented to the Society of Anthropology by Broca, who made him the subject of a brief note, from which it appears that at the age of thirteen Jacques was still innocent of reading and writing. He has acquired those arts since, and has in other respects made great headway, although his education has remained rudimentary on many points. The operations which he performs are addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, the extraction of roots; and he resolves, by arithmetic, equations of the first degree—all in his head, without any outward aid from reading or writing. A problem is given to him, *viva voce*, he listens attentively, repeats it distinctly, says, "I begin," starts muttering to himself very rapidly, and goes on calculating, undisturbed by anything that goes on about him. He can answer questions, and even carry on a conversation, while performing his mental process. After a very short interval he says, "I have done," and gives the solution, proving it, also, for his own satisfaction. The problems he solves are such as multiplying by each other numbers composed of eight or ten figures, or he will say how many seconds there are in an arbitrarily chosen number of years, months, days, and hours, or he will add in a few seconds seven numbers, each composed of eight or ten figures; he will rapidly find the square or cube root of a number containing twelve figures; he can extract as well the sixth or the seventh root.

—M. Binet's discussion of the facts just enumerated, and of others for which there is no room here, leads him to the conclusion that the case of Inaudi furnishes a remarkable confirmation of the modern theory of partial memories—the theory, namely, that there is a musical memory, a memory for language, for letters, for numbers, etc. All arithmetical prodigies have an unusual memory for numbers, while their memory for other things is not above, and is perhaps below, the average. Inaudi can repeat twenty-four figures that have been recited to him, while the average man can repeat only from seven to ten; but when it comes to letters, Inaudi cannot repeat more than seven or eight. A second conclusion is the discovery of an auditive as well as a visualising memory; that is, while all other mathematical prodigies who have been able to give an intelligent account of their mental processes have agreed in saying that they saw before their mind's eye the figures with which they operated, as a blindfolded chessplayer sees the squares of a mental chessboard, Inaudi, on the other hand, distinctly asserts that he does not see the numbers, but that he hears them resound in his ears with the pitch of his own voice. His habit of whispering to himself while calculating confirms this account, and a further confirmation is found in the fact that when he tries to stop whispering, his operations take much longer than the usual time.

VON HOLST'S UNITED STATES.

The Constitutional and Political History of the United States. By Dr. H. von Holst, Professor at the University of Freiburg. Translated from the German by John J. Lalor. 1859-1861: Harper's Ferry—Lincoln's Inauguration. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 8vo, pp. 459.

WITH this volume Dr. von Holst announces the close of his important work. In a letter to Von Sybel inserted as a preface, he gives his reason for making the inauguration of Lincoln instead of the attack upon Fort Sumter "the end of the old Union and the beginning of the new," and therefore the proper end, also, of the history of the old Constitution. The question is not one of much moment. Several striking events might any one of them be a fit end of an historical epoch. The election of Lincoln in November, 1860, and the immediate overt act of South Carolina beginning the secession programme, was in several ways more significant than Lincoln's inauguration.

Americans who assert that the Union was not destroyed—that the attempt to destroy it, gigantic as it was, proved unsuccessful—will naturally prefer to ignore any sharply drawn distinctions between the old Union and the new. In a strict sense, the constitutional history of the epoch of slavery ends with the adoption of the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery. The Union remained, but the Constitution was amended in harmony with its own provisions to that end, fundamental as the amendment was. The effect of the Rebellion in hastening the constitutional change was very great; but the sharp arbitrament of war must be regarded as compelling the acceptance of a result foreshadowed in the election of Lincoln. Had there been no rebellion, three steps would have been taken in a peaceful evolution of our organic system. First, there would have come a practical acquiescence in the popular decision that no more slave States should be organized, and that all future new States must be free States. Second, the slavery system would have decayed in the remaining slave States, beginning with the borderland from Maryland to Missouri. Third, in the ripeness of time, freedom having become practically universal, the form of the Constitution would have been made to agree with the fact; the remnants of the old bondage being removed by compensated emancipation, perhaps, and this being the consideration for the anti-slavery amendment.

This was the consummation toward which the Republicans of 1860 looked. It was also the consummation which the secessionists of 1861 knew to be inevitable if they peacefully accepted the election of Lincoln. It might have taken a century, though such processes of evolution tend to accelerate. But it was not so to be. The secessionists made war, not only on the Union, but on the progress of the age. It is probable that but for the attitude of all Christendom toward slavery, the Confederacy might have got such aid and comfort as to establish it and make the disruption permanent. It found, by sorest experience, that the progress of the age was not a glittering generality, but a force potent enough to control the action of States and to limit to words the sympathies of rulers like Louis Napoleon.

Dr. von Holst continues his masterly analysis of events down to the Presidential election of 1860 with a power and success which leave little to criticise. Differences of opinion grow more marked (as he himself recognizes) when we come to the interpretation of the events of the following winter. The true purposes of Southern leaders, the real attitude of Buchanan toward them, the various groups of Northern political forces, and the development of popular sentiment in both sections—these start complicated problems of which the solution is far from clear. Their consideration opens so wide a discussion that any historian may well pause before attacking it.

We cannot help thinking that Dr. von Holst has felt the difficulty of going further, and has practically closed his history with the autumn election, giving a sketch, rather than full treatment, to the problems suggested. In what he has written, he leans to a more simple analysis of the political elements and forces than his American readers will be apt to receive. In such a crisis, the formal organizations of parties by no means constitute the nation. It was a time when parties were not unlikely to be blown out of existence by a whirlwind of popular feeling. Political leaders and organs are, in such a time, the most vacillating and uncertain of things. Their utterances are hollow, and have no fixed relation to their real beliefs. They are either whistling to keep their courage up, or are prophesying smooth things to the circle of their closest followers. To declare that that will happen which they wish to happen, and to scout all dangers which they dread, is of the nature of nominal representatives of vested political interests in a revolutionary time.

To quote party newspapers and speeches of politicians is, therefore, only to note the things which they wished and apprehended. It leaves unsounded the depths of the popular current which is sweeping all onward. It does not even measure the true opinions of those who are quoted, whose voices often sounded sepulchrally hollow to themselves, while they expressed unshaken confidence in the good fortune of their party and their friends. Von Holst does not seem to recognize this sufficiently in his chapters on the "Wrong Calculations of the Republicans" and the "Wrong Calculations of the Secessionists," in the fateful winter before the war. We should put more stress on the fact that each party was formed of many groups, not only, but that on the outskirts of each were many of whom it was doubtful whether the centripetal or the centrifugal force were stronger upon them. The slightest thing might change attraction into repulsion. To hold the elements together, to draw on the doubtful, to hold back the too aggressive, to watch the drift of sentiment, to suppress imprudent disclosures, to seek forms of commonplace accepted by all—these are the time-honored arts of political managers which are practised till the very down-pour of the deluge which had been the proverbial limit of their planning.

Von Holst's treatment of this period seems to deal too much with the outward expressions of prominent men and journals, and not to reckon enough with the forces behind them. It may not be possible, even now, for one to the manner born to marshal properly the evidence which shows the true spirit of that time in the North or in the South. With all his industry and all his instinct for historical investigation, it is doing no discredit to Dr. von Holst to say that it was impossible that he should adequately examine the infinite forces

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working beneath the surface and leaving obscure traces of their action, but which accumulated a power to sweep away vociferous leaders and give the lie to their prophecies and their expositions. An equally able investigator, living in America, might give to the inner history of that winter of 1860-61 the full twenty years which the distinguished German professor has devoted to his whole task, and find the time none too long.

We believe it will be found that in the North and in the South there was a development so rapid that the most truthful history of the time would be one showing from week to week such changes of sentiment and opinion that an estimate of the purposes of men which would be accurate for November would be false in January, and one which would be true for the 4th of March would be absurd for the 13th of April. A consciousness of this (more or less adequate) made sagacious men like Lincoln adopt a waiting policy. *Laissez-faire* became a respectable principle instead of being a helpless makeshift. It was the germinating time of a revolution, and the changes which wrought beyond expectation did not prove "wrong calculations" in any proper sense, on one side or the other. The conflicting expressions of men showed rather that they took refuge in formulas of hope or of courage because they were impotent or afraid to speak out their inmost hearts, and were waiting for a demonstration of forces before which they stood in awe. With such a view of that time, it becomes to us an epoch in itself, and we can sympathize with the feeling of the historian that it had better be left to a separate treatment. It is too large a theme for the closing chapters of a great work devoted to seventy years of previous constitutional development.

Down to the beginning of the second session of the Thirty-sixth Congress, Von Holst's history has the very great merit of grasping with firm hand the clues to American development found in the conflict between slavery and freedom, and of showing clearly the control this antagonism exerted upon both the exterior and interior policy of the country and of the parties which ruled it. Through all his seven volumes there is a unity of thought and a strength of handling which we cannot fail to acknowledge, even when we find ourselves occasionally differing from his estimate of men and of measures. It makes the reader feel how inevitably the woes of the great conflict of 1861 were potentially hidden in the wrong of slavery which all the colonies shared, but which, by a fatal error, was allowed to survive the establishment of a republican constitution in 1789. In this respect the book has hardly a rival, and it must long remain a leading authority in both hemispheres.

In noticing former volumes we have had occasion to express regret that the English version was not more satisfactory. The last volume gives less occasion for criticism in this respect than some of its predecessors, though there are many involved and complex sentences that might easily have been put in a form to be much easier and more attractive reading to the American public. The book is so able and so honest, and it teaches lessons which our people may profit so much by learning, that we could wish its form were every way such as to attract the widest possible circle of readers. It is also to be hoped that an index will be furnished for the whole work, there being as yet none at all.

RECENT FICTION.

A Human Document. By W. H. Mallock. Cassell Publishing Co.

The Quality of Mercy. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

Fifty Pounds for a Wife. By A. L. Glyn. Henry Holt & Co.

Vesty of the Basins. By S. P. McLean Greene. Harper & Bros.

Sybil Knox. By Edward E. Hale. Cassell Publishing Co.

A Fellowe and His Wife. By Blanche W. Howard and William Sharp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Daughter of the South. By Mrs. Burton Harrison. Cassell Publishing Co.

An Edelweiss of the Sierras, and Other Stories. By Mrs. Burton Harrison. Harper & Bros.

Colonel Starbottle's Client, and Some Other People. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Tales of a Time and Place. By Grace King. Harper & Bros.

Don Finimondone: Calabrian Sketches. By Elizabeth Cavazza. Charles L. Webster & Co.

In the introduction to 'A Human Document,' Mr. Mallock informs us that his part in the work is little more than that of a compiler of letters and diaries, and that the novel is therefore a chapter from the life of two people faithfully written by themselves. The only reason for questioning the truth of this statement is the lengthy exculpatory discourse which follows it. In the past the author has involved himself in immoralities without any prefatory defence, and here he has the sane and chastened air of one conscious of follies committed, who wishes to say, "I am going to do it again, but accept beforehand my rational extenuation." His defence is a protest against those limitations in depicting life prescribed for English novelists by English public opinion. These limitations have furnished a theme for many rebellious essays which frequently impress the disinterested as more or less shameless pleas for the unreserved privilege of writing indecent novels. Though we may suspect Mr. Mallock of having the same end in view, his argument is so clear, temperate, and civil that it goes far to disarm the suspicion; indeed, when considered apart from the novel which it prefaces, it is an admirably concise and comprehensive declaration of the principles by which all fiction should be inspired if it would have any enduring value as a picture of life or a guide for living. Considered in its relation to 'A Human Document,' it is an adroit stratagem for heading off alert censors of morals, who, with such frank preparation for a violent shock, will be so worn out by hope deferred that when the critical moment arrives, they can experience only a passing tremor.

Never was an immoral situation arrived at more decorously or with such deliberate elegance. Every person concerned in the action is a personage, and we see the common sinners, Mr. Grenville and Mrs. Schilizzi, strolling down an endless perspective of Hungarian castles till plebeian eyes are dazzled, and plebeian judgment hesitates to express itself confidently about the commonness of their sin. The only way to recover a decent self-esteem is to declare ourselves bored by the description of their external life, and to wonder why, of all the objections to the book foreseen and apologized for, its dulness should have escaped the author's observation. The diaries in which Grenville and Mrs. Schilizzi disclose their intellectual and emotional progress from indifference to mutual passion, with subsequent relapses to coldness and accessions of fervor, are unquestionably human documents, in their assumption that nothing could be so important or so impressive as even the trivial acts and thoughts of the writer. So much earnest sincerity applied to self-scrutiny may be salutary to the scrutinizer, but the solemn egotism of the performance is the quality most clearly visible to the reader of the record; it is also the quality in the Grenville-Schilizzi memoirs which substantiates the author's claim for them as an impartial revelation of the contact and conflict of good and evil in the persons implicated. The genuine humanness of the documents is further attested by their unconscious revelations. Grenville never mentions that he is either a prig or a snob, yet his confessions fairly entitle him to both attributes. Mrs. Schilizzi never refers to her desire, growing into an intention, both to eat her cake and have it too—a vulgar determination of all women whose private lives run counter to the demands of their public, conventional respectability. Yet she is neither vulgar nor immoral, only lacking in that rare mental integrity which compels one to face an unpleasant fact. Her unfortunate circumstances abundantly explain an infidelity which brings in its train many forces for the disintegration of character. A victim to the barbarous custom which permits, and in lofty circles encourages, the marriage of a young girl to a man whom, if she knew him at all, she would loathe, is generally faithful to that husband just so long as she escapes close contact with a man who seems to give her all the understanding and sympathy which she has longed for and hitherto missed. Schilizzi's total depravity makes his wife appear an angel of patient forbearance. He is in every aspect so loathsome that the services rendered to him by Grenville when he lies dying of diphtheria are unnatural, unnecessary, and revolting. The only chapter in the book for which apology is needed (that which the author may all the time have had in mind) is the one describing the progress of Schilizzi's malady. This is a plunge into the mire of naturalism from which, if public opinion could for ever restrain our English novelists, we need not regard the name of "prude" as a reproach.

'The Quality of Mercy' is a modern novel, yet not precisely up to date, for its events precede the ratification of the extradition treaty between the United States and Canada. Long familiarity has made the public callous to any sad significance in the announcement that a highly esteemed citizen, long occupying a position of trust, has mysteriously vanished; that an examination of his books discloses peculations extending over a quarter of a century; that a distracted family has locked the front door of his palatial mansion whereat the righteous interviewer batters in vain. The amount of the respected citizen's embezzlement must be enormous to excite more than a passing breath of comment. The student of character alone maintains a vivid interest in the fact, undiminished by its frequency. To him the absconding gentleman perpetually suggests the questions, whether during his career of crime he has ever regarded himself as a thief; whether the suspicion is forced upon him only by the moment of discovery; whether, even after that, he can cast aside the garment of self-delusion and see his soul's deformity. Mr. Howells presents

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these questions concretely in the person of Mr. Northwick, the defaulting treasurer of the Ponkwasset Mills. The circumstances are precisely similar to those so often narrated in the newspaper reports of a defalcation. The clever youth of a country village goes up to town (in this case Boston), seeking a sphere of action commensurate with his abilities. Energy, industry, boldness held in leash by prudence, known domestic virtue, all combine for the speedy achievement of prosperity. His children reap the benefits of his wealth and his high repute. As he approaches old age, apparently in indisputable possession of the honors that should attend it, the awful moment arrives. The Ponkwasset Company fails to meet its engagements. The horror-stricken directors meet in hasty conclave. It is plain that their childlike trust has been abused, and they, the innocent, the unsuspecting, stand discredited unless a scapegoat be speedily produced. He is just at hand, and it is at the crisis when monumental respectability topples and crashes in the dust that Mr. Howells's study begins. His presentation of a character so complex and inscrutable is profound and complete, the artist's intuition supplying many links in the chain that can never be found by the mere observer, however keen. Northwick seems to be a type of men of his kind as true to life as are Silas Lapham and Bartley Hubbard. The pleasure to be derived from reading this study is a purely literary one, and, great as that is, it cannot dispel the depression caused by the subject's intrinsic pain.

The author has, however, done his best to lighten inseparable gloom. Noticeably inspiriting is Pinney, the reporter, genial, light-hearted, and kind in almost every relation of life, yet a perfectly unscrupulous little fiend when animated by a desire to make a "beat" in the interest of *The Events*. If the day shall ever come when the Pinneys cease from troubling, they will still remain alive and terrible in the pages of Mr. Howells's novels. The perusal of 'The Quality of Mercy' must increase the admiration of the author's constant readers for the fidelity with which he has pursued his chosen way, to present a series of pictures of common American life. They must also be impressed by that steady advance in knowledge which is helping him in his later works to represent his people as, after all, more human than American. The hardness and coldness of his touch, which resulted from limited vision, have been much modified. Without loss of brilliancy, his style has gained urbanity, even tenderness, and thus compels a personal affection through which intellectual admiration suffers no detraction.

The summer is with us, and it is not the joys of the season which are increased for the reviewer by the summer novelist. If it were imperative that the novelist should express or suggest ideas, however feeble, there would be no summer novels. If there is one thing to which the summer intellect is not attuned, it is the reception of ideas, and the novelist who should attempt to inflict them would be promptly rejected with deserved contumely. With a clear understanding, therefore, of the relation between the producer and his public, the reviewer is in honor bound to award praise in direct proportion to the absence of everything that implies or demands an exercise of the reflective faculties. Judged by this standard, 'Fifty Pounds for a Wife' is easily *hors concours*. It appeared slightly before its proper time, but has nevertheless the full flavor of a luscious maturity. It has absorbed the juice and pulp (a summer novel has no blood or bones) of a hundred of its kind. It calls to mind the punctual and greedy boarder who deliberately transfers all the tender bits to his own plate; also, the confident professional gentleman who, having "gone in on his luck," proceeds to "scoop the pot." Mysteries, hereditary curses, abductions, murders, confusion of real and supposed fathers, worse confounded by real and supposed mothers—all these properties of the craft have been seized by the author and worked into the history of a lovely maiden and a demon Earl. The lovely maiden is throughout a victim, responsible for nothing but her loveliness, which she perfectly lives up to. The demon Earl is a compendium of crime, and, if we could believe in him for an instant, we should deeply despond for the race that produced him. But the author's great triumph as a summer novelist is that he is nothing if not incredible, and therefore his work makes no more demand on the emotions than on the intelligence.

A similar tribute is in justice due to 'Vesty of the Basins.' The summer boarder on the Maine coast who carries along a copy of this externally very attractive book will have an opportunity to realize how far past believing an author can get even when filled with the intention literally to transcribe life. The linguistic feats of the hoary cap'ns who guard the wooden piers of their native shores are certainly wonderful, but a wide acquaintance with them fails to locate the unpronounceable speech of Captains Leezur, Kobbe, and their associates. Their peculiarities of character suffer parallel distortion to such a degree that they are recognizable only by a pervading odor of fish and tar. The caricature of a respectable model is coarse and strained, but the author has not again put her publisher in peril of suit for libel. There lives no captain so devoid of self-esteem as to imagine himself the original of any one of the grotesque creatures collectively and with prudent vagueness denominated "The Basins."

Mr. Hale's contribution to the season's fiction is too pointedly didactic to win commendation. In small compass he undertakes to expose the rascality of the "railroad wrecker," to reprove the disseminators of idle gossip, and to accentuate the moral value of societies formed by women for the suppression of self-recognized faults and the extension of good works. Compelled to carry so much serious motive, the interest of the story is divided, only to be united by the momentary fear that the great gossip of Atherton has parted for ever the widow Knox and her devoted swain, John Coudert. Coudert's character has no surprises: he is always worthy and persistent in the several missions undertaken for love of Mrs. Knox, though they involve him in considerable trouble and expense. In the development of Mrs. Knox we confess to some disappointment. A good deal is expected of a lady sufficiently unconventional, not to say excitable, to drive down Fifth Avenue (a thoroughfare where cabs abound) on an express wagon, whip in hand. We feel that such a spirited person ought to have promptly attacked and suppressed the village gossips, and that she would not have lost her pristine vigor amidst the languid joys of Atherton picnics, or at once succumbed to the chastening influence of a "Send Me" society.

The literary references which plentifully grace the story of 'A Fellowe and His Wife' will slightly mar the enjoyment of the casual reader. He will take it up on the train or steamer, far removed from kindly books of reference, and will immediately become depressed by a sense of his ignorance concerning the private lives of great poets and the comparative merits of the great guns of several literatures. If he be conscienceless about those things, his idle hour will be pleasantly filled. The letters exchanged between the Count and Countess von Jaromar move emotion without harrowing it, and comedy is ever more present than tragedy. It is evident from the beginning that the Countess is a light-minded young woman, and that her real motive for separating herself from her obliging husband is a desire to see life, for which purpose the expressed yearning "to feel that I, a woman, am not a mere appendage," forms as good an excuse as any other. Her gift of self-deception is considerable, but her taste for bad company is so much more pronounced than that for art that we suspect Mr. Sharp of a gentle satire on so serious a movement as the emancipation of woman. Miss Howard's Count is a very good "fellowe," a little prosy, a little sentimental, yet blessed with that tact which alone, in his situation, could save him from appearing ridiculous.

Mrs. Harrison comes bravely forward with two volumes containing fourteen short stories or sketches. Some of these invite somnolence, all are superficial and absolutely unprovocative of agitation. It is a matter for regret that the author has done nothing better than 'Golden Rod,' which, after about ten years of existence, remains an agreeable and truthful picture of the summer colony at Mt. Desert; on the other hand, we may rejoice that she has not fallen far below herself, and that she does not strive to achieve popularity by vulgarity in incident, character, or language.

None of the stories included under the title 'Colonel Starbottle's Client' are worthy of the author's fame, yet each is, in some way, better than the best of the average story-writer. Facility in composition and perfect familiarity with scenes permanently picturesque go far to enable a man to turn out readable stories by the score. Excepting the last, these stories are readable and not too grievously disappointing; but in the "Ghosts of Stukely Castle" there is a flatness which we had not supposed could be achieved by any one who had ever risen above hopeless mediocrity.

The scene of Miss King's 'Tales of a Time and Place' is always in the far South, and many of the people are not black, yet not quite white, not quite French, yet definitely not American. Something of the grace and splendor of the old régime pervades Miss King's descriptions of Creole society, and, through all adversity, her great dames remain refined, courteous, and exquisitely natural. To investigate the truth of such charming portraits would be to risk the destruction of a faith most consolatory in a world from which the great dame seems to have vanished. Far better to enjoy unquestioning what Miss King describes with at least the appearance of scrupulous veracity. In narrating a slight episode, as in sketching a simple character, her touch is at once strong and delicate, but her power of invention fails to sustain a complicated plot. She dashes spasmodically from incident to incident, and though she always has her end in view, arrives at it through much incoherence. "Madrilène, or the Festival of the Dead," is the most powerful story in this volume. The wretched girl expresses an agony of despair which can be portrayed only by writers endowed with rare imaginative faculty.

The right to live for many seasons belongs to the little volume of Calabrian sketches en-

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titled 'Don Finimondone.' Here are perfect sympathy with very humble people, humor without exaggeration, and just that touch of pathos which is inseparable from poverty accepted as a condition imposed by God. The nationality of the characters is very delicately yet distinctly accentuated, not by eccentric distortions of English idiom, but by that wealth of mordant irony and philosophical aphorism which is the legacy of history to the common tongue of the Latin races.

The Province of Expression: A search for principles underlying adequate methods of developing Dramatic and Oratoric Delivery. By S. S. Curry, Ph. D., Dean, School of Expression; Instructor of Elocution, Harvard College, etc. Boston: School of Expression. 1891.

THE name Elocution, which, even with our own early writers, was nearly equivalent to eloquence, having been subsequently transferred to the subsidiary art of delivery, is at last degraded by Dr. Curry to designate an offensive display of technique without soul or real art. This leaves him no better word than "expression" by which to designate the art usually termed elocution. In this essay, which it is certainly not too much to call thoughtful and refined, although it might be found disappointing to a reader who were to expect the profound philosophy to which the adepts of this art nowadays make pretensions, four different schools of delivery are recognized as traditional—the imitative, the mechanical (that of Rush), the impulsive, and the speculative (that of Delsarte). These are all more or less criticised, although not always with entirely convincing arguments. Especially Rush's method is condemned, partly on the ground that it is mainly based upon observations, not of a natural and universal style of expression, but only of a conventional and peculiar style—an allegation far too lightly supported—and partly on the ground that the mechanical application of its rules is found to produce results very odious. But there is a confusion here between the question of the truth and utility of the rules and of the value of a stupid, unrefined, and tasteless application of them. Elocution, in this, may be compared to the art of writing, the usual rules for which are universally acknowledged as sound, so that they cannot be violated with impunity. But let them be applied with never so much technical skill, yet in a soulless, perfunctory, and undiscriminating manner, and the result will be called an academical or rhetorical style. Precisely the same effect is too often produced by elocutionists of the school of Rush. But in the one case, as in the other, it is not the rules that are at fault, but the inartistic use of them.

Nor is it fair to expect that an elocutionist should be a great artist or orator; Mr. Mackaye himself, to whom Dr. Curry seems to assign a preëminent position among teachers, is not that. The truth is, that the attitude of mind in studying principles is so opposed to its attitude in applying them, that excessive devotion to the theory of any art is somewhat unfavorable to its practice. It is so in some measure even in that principal art to which rhetoric and elocution—if not, indeed, all other arts—are subsidiary, namely, the art of thinking and of feeling aright. And the more an art is of a subsidiary character, the more theory and practice are, or seem to be, at war.

When we inquire what Dr. Curry would propose in place of the four rejected methods, we do not find a very definite reply in this volume. He insists strongly upon training, but that is a matter of course; the whole question is what the method of the training shall be. He thinks it highly important to say that the art of delivery shall be made chiefly a manifestative, and only in small degree a representative, art. But this again seems to be too far back among first principles to escape vagueness. We are promised, however, nine succeeding volumes by Dr. Curry upon his art, so that we cannot expect that the first should contain anything more than generalities.

From Palm to Glacier. With an interlude. Brazil, Bermuda, and Alaska. By Alice Wellington Rollins. Putnams. 1892. 8vo, pp. x, 145, illustrated.

THIS attractive volume is not an itinerary or book of travel, but rather a chronicle of impressions. The journey from New York to Rio, touching at various Antillean and Brazilian ports, introduces the author to various aspects of tropical nature, human and otherwise. The mental and sentimental response to the environment, the hopeless struggle of the New England temperament against the invading languors of the tropics, are delicately and wittily portrayed. Here and there are charming word-pictures of nooks and vistas of the southern world. In an orange grove:

"Already the air is full of snowy perfume; it is just as we had heard it described, with the rich blossoms, the subtle fragrance, the green fruit, and the ripened golden globes, all on the same tree at once. But what we had never heard of was the delicate carpet under foot, of the white petals falling, falling, falling—I had almost said musically falling—in a constant, silent, soft, and snowy shower. There is nothing sad in the falling blossoms; there is not the slightest breeze that could seem to insist on their taking flight, and there is nothing to suggest decay. They seem to have detached themselves of their own accord, and to float willingly down in the rich gold sunshine, as if they had simply blossomed as long as they cared to."

After an "interlude" at Bermuda, Alaska was visited. In Taku Inlet, in front of the great glacier:

"We see the great icebergs cloven from the side of the mountain glacier without any apparent agency. The air is as still as if it were sultry. There is no wind or storm or lightning to crush and mar. The sun is brilliant, but not hot enough to melt a glacier. There is no enemy in sight with gigantic axe or subtle spear. Yet suddenly there is a sound like the booming of cannon, or a long reverberation like magnificent thunder; the ice is cracking; suddenly a thin slice cut from the great mass as smoothly as a slice of bread from a loaf, by some unseen sword of Damocles in the subtle forces of the air, loosens its hold and slips slowly down into water at its base 800 feet deep. It does not crumble and topple awkwardly over as rock would; it simply separates from the rest and slides smoothly, quietly, down, down. There is an instant's pause, then a rising fountain of displaced water like a great geyser, and a little later the great mass rises to the surface, and, broken into grottos and crumbs, goes sailing down the bay to greet other ships. . . . Sometimes a great snowy mass, arched at the prow and stern, and gleaming with golden sunshine, glides slowly past like Elaine's barge floating to Camelot; sometimes one arches over like a great-lipped shell, tinged with the deepest yet clearest rose color; sometimes they are hollowed out like great grottos, full of emerald light; and again they are like tiny mountains of transparent snow, filled with superb tints of blue."

Typography, paper, and binding are all choice, but the "process" illustrations are hardly fine enough to avoid a certain air of cheapness, the only jarring "motive" in the book.

The Dog in Health and in Disease, including his origin, history, varieties, breeding, education, and general management in health, and his treatment in disease. By Wesley Mills, M.A., M.D., D.V.S., etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. vii, 407, illustrated.

WHEN dogs are wounded or stricken by disease, they are usually turned over to the veterinary surgeon without inquiry as to his qualification. Dr. Mills, himself of the profession, does not believe a knowledge of the horse and of horse medicine sufficient. He advocates special studies of the diseases of the dog, of the effects of the drugs, and, as a necessary preliminary to an understanding of abnormal conditions, a thorough acquaintance with the animal in health. His book, a consequence of his intense interest in cynology, is a comprehensive and excellent treatise, apparently the first in its particular field. Nearly half of the volume treats of origin, classification, care, training, breeding, etc.; the remainder is filled with descriptions of the diseases, diagnoses, treatments, and medicines. On the whole, the work is well done; its recommendations are modern and humane. Its publication can hardly fail to result in improving the quality and condition of our friends the dogs, and it is suited to all who are interested in them.

Subsequent editions should correct a number of faults, grammatical or other, that have escaped the author's eye in this edition. There are thirty-nine good full-page illustrations of different races; they are scattered through the entire volume without references to their text, which again bears no references to them. To specify, the figure of the Irish wolfhound is opposite page 24, the description is on page 36; neither refers to the other, and the index omits any mention of either. The list includes only the full-page illustrations and ignores as many cuts of anatomy, effects of disease, and modes of treatment. A glossary for the technical terms is necessary. "Ears small, set well back, square, with the skull lying close to head," is due to oversight in proof-reading. Something deeper is occasionally in evidence of needed revision. The discussion of hydrophobia, p. 314, states that "the period of *incubation* or latency of the disease is more variable than in case of any malady known to us. It seems to vary between a few days (ten to fifteen) and many months, if not even years." It is added on page 318 that "as all animals bitten do not become rabid, it is not necessary to kill a dog bitten by a rabid animal at once, for he may wholly escape." Without the means of determining whether the virus is latent or incubating, it would seem, from our author's testimony, that assurance of safety lies only in immediately killing any dog that is bitten.

La Jeunesse de La Fayette, 1757-1792. Par A. Bardoux. Paris: C. Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1892. 8vo, pp. xii, 409.

THIS volume, treating of the life of Lafayette up to the time of his flight from France, is to be followed by a second, devoted to his subsequent career. It is giving the term "youth" rather an extended signification to make it include the thirty-fifth year of a man who was married at seventeen and a major-general at nineteen. At an age when most men of his station have but just entered on an active life, Lafayette was already a conspicuous figure in the world's history; and although his claims to our respect may rest more on his virtues than on his talents, it must be admitted that, in spite of his extreme

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youth during his service in the American Army, he committed hardly any indiscretion where it was so easy to commit so many. M. Bardoux is not always as clear in his historical exposition as could be wished, and his style does not make up for the defects of his method. Readers who are familiar with the history of the period will get but little from him that is new, while those who are not will have to go to other sources for a distinct and connected narrative of the events in which Lafayette bore a conspicuous part. But, with all his limitations, M. Bardoux gives us a very pleasing picture of the character of his hero. The reader feels that in Lafayette he makes the acquaintance of a man of noble traits and attractive qualities; one whose very mistakes were such as could spring only from the purest motives and the warmest impulses. Especially charming are the glimpses the author affords of the domestic life of Lafayette: of the devoted affection subsisting between him and his wife; of the bringing up and home surroundings of Mme. de Lafayette, who was married before she reached the age of fifteen, and who, all through her life, loyally stood by her husband in his public career, although she would have preferred for him a private station. The pages given to such topics are the most valuable in the book.

M. Bardoux may also justly claim to have cleared the memory of Lafayette of all the charges of duplicity made against him, on the one hand by the Royalists and on the other by the Jacobins. The fact that he incurred the hostility of these two parties is only to his honor, and certifies to the courage and honesty with which he opposed them both in what he believed to be the best interests of his country. If he had stooped to make terms with the extreme revolutionists, he could probably have made himself the foremost man in France. Of the substantial and disinterested services he rendered to our country it is hardly necessary to speak. The American people will never cease to appreciate them, and have permanently adopted him as one of their national heroes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appletons' General Guide to the United States and Canada. 1892. Appletons.
Bacheller, Irving. The Master of Silence. Charles L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Campbell-Praed, Mrs. December Roses. Appletons.
Constantenides, Prof. M. Neohellenica. Macmillan. $1.90.
Doumic, René. Portraits d'Ecrivains. Paris: Paul Delaplane.
Ebers, Georg. A Thorny Path. 2 vols. Appletons.
Emerson, P. H. A Son of the Fens. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
Grandgent, C. H. German and English Sounds. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Griswold, W. M. France—Germany—Switzerland: A Series of Narratives of Personal Visits to Places therein famous for Natural Beauty or Historical Association. 3 vols. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Griswold, W. M. Travel. Cambridge, Mass.: W. M. Griswold.
Hakes, Harry. The Discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. Wilkesbarre, Pa.: Robert Baur & Son.
Hunter-Duvar, J. The Stone, Bronze and Iron Ages. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Hutton, A. W., and Cohen, H. J. The Speeches and Public Addresses of W. E. Gladstone. Vol. X. 1888—1891. London: Methuen & Co.
Ingersoll, Ernest. The Canadian Guide-Book. Part II. Western Canada. Appletons.
Irwin, J. A. Hydrotheraphy at Saratoga. Cassell. 50 cents.
Jacobson, Augustus. An Ounce of Prevention. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Kipling, R., and Balestier, W. The Naulahka: A Story of West and East. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lang, Andrew. Helen of Troy. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXXI. Kennett—Lambart. Macmillan. $3.75.
Macquoid, Katharine S. Appledore Farm. National Book Co.
Malot, Hector. A Story without a Moral. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
McCaleb, Thomas. Anthony Melgrave. Putnams. $1.50.
McCosh, James. Our Moral Nature: Being a Brief System of Ethics. Scribners. 75 cents.
McKendrick, Prof. J. G. Life in Motion; or, Muscle and Nerve. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Meissner, Madame de. A Tcherkesse Prince. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.50.
Middleton, Prof. J. H. Illuminated Manuscripts in Classical and Mediæval Times: their Art and their Technique. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $5.25.
Missing Friends; being the Adventures of a Danish Emigrant in Queensland (1871–1880). [Adventure Series.] London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Oman, C. W. C. The Story of the Byzantine Empire. Putnams. $1.50.
Overland Monthly. January—June, 1892. San Francisco: *Overland Monthly* Publishing Co.
Parker, G. F. The Writings and Speeches of Grover Cleveland. Cassell. $2.50.
Parkin, G. R. Imperial Federation. Macmillan. $1.25.
Parr, Mrs. The Squire. Cassell. $1.
Pierson, Rev. A. T. The Heart of the Gospel. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Pike, Warburton. The Barren Ground of Northern Canada. Macmillan. $2.
Pilcher, J. E. First Aid in Illness and Injury. Scribners.
Platt, Arthur. The Odyssey of Homer. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Pool, Maria L. Mrs. Keats Bradford. Harpers.
Revell, W. F. Browning's Criticism of Life. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Sales, Pierre. The Price of a Coronet. Cassell. 50 cents.
Sargent, Prof. C. S. Silva of North America. Part IV. Rosaceæ—Saxifragaceæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Schäfer, Prof. E. A., and Thane, Prof. G. D. Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Vol. II., Part II. Longmans, Green & Co.
Serampore Letters; being the Unpublished Correspondence of William Carey and Others with John Williams. Putnams. $1.50.

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